A critical analysis of ecotourism and good environmental governance in the Cederberg Complex

by
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ABSTRACT

Protected areas are special areas dedicated to conserving nature separate from human pressures. Over the years, this conservation tool has become increasingly popular due to its multiplicity of functions — to serve and safeguards sensitive ecological resources and services, as well as serving the socio-economic development of local communities. Although tourism activities are often utilised as a tool to serve protected areas by acting as an income stimulator, if not governed well, with strategic intent and accountability, the protected areas could become self-destructive.

This study explores the role of good environmental governance and ecotourism as tools to serve the Cederberg Complex in the Western Cape Province. It explores the meaning of environmental governance and key principles of good governance; the meaning of ecotourism and how it could be applied to serve the social and human-centred dimensions of tourism; and the environmental and economic aspects involved.

The study area (Cederberg Complex) consists of the Cederberg Wilderness, the Hexberg State Forest and the Matjiesrivier Nature Reserve, that fall under the jurisdiction of CapeNature, the Cederberg Local Municipality and West Coast District Municipality. Consequently, there is an overlap between the laws, policies and plans governing ecotourism development in these protected areas and consequently require alignment on various spheres of government — regional, provincial and national.

Based on empirical and non-empirical research, the study investigates: (1) how CapeNature as management authority of the Cederberg Complex applies good governance; (2) how ecotourism is governed and implemented in the study area; and (3) success stories of collaboratively governed ecotourism activities in the Cederberg Complex. Accordingly, based on the newly acquired knowledge and in-depth understanding of ecotourism and good environmental governance, the study recommends the next steps to ensure robust implementation to serve the people of the Cederberg Complex.

The research identified the need for a collaboration and good governance involving various stakeholders and partnerships, to successfully implement ecotourism in the Cederberg Complex and share local benefits.

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OPSOMMING

Beskermde gebiede is unieke areas wat ontwikkel is met die doel om die natuur te bewaar, uitgeslote van die menslike invloede. Mettertyd het die instelling van beskermende gebiede ‘n gewilde wyse geword om bewaring te implementeer. Dit is hoofsaaklik te danke aan die veelvoudige vermoë om sensitiewe ekologiese dienste en hulpbronne te bewaar, en terselfdertyd sosio-ekonomiese ontwikkeling in plaaslike gemeenskappe te bevorder. Gevolglik word daar gereeld van toerisme-aktiwiteite gebruik gemaak om inkomste in die gebiede te genereer. Dit is dus van kardinale belang om hierdie areas met aanspreeklikheid, strategiese visie en goeie regeerkunde te bestuur om selfvernietiging te voorkom.

Die studie ondersoek die rol wat goeie regeerkunde en ekotoerisme as hulpmiddele speel om die Cederberg Kompleks in die Weskaap Provinsie te dien. Dit streef daarna om die betekenis en kern karaktereienskappe van goeie omgewingsregeerkunde te verstaan, sowel as die suksesvolle implementering daarvan. Gevolglik bestudeer hierdie studie die betekenis van ekotoerisme. Dit is belangrik om die konsep volledig te verstaan; die wyse waarop dit die sosiale- en menslike dimensies van toerisme aanspreek; en die ekologiese- as ook ekonomiese aspekte wat daarby betrokke is.

Die studiegebied (Cederberg Kompleks) bestaan uit die Cederberg Wildernis, die Hexberg Staatswoud en die Matjiesrivier Natuurreservaat wat ingedeel is onder die jurisdiksie van CapeNature, die Cederberg Plaaslike Munisipaliteit en die Weskus Distrik Munisipaliteit. Gevolglik is daar ‘n oorvleueling van regerende wetgewings, strategiese raamwerke en beleide waaraan die ontwikkeling van ekotoerisme in die gebied moet voldoen en ooreenstem op ‘n streeks- provinsiale en nasionaal vlak.

Deur middel van empiriese en nie-empiriese navorsing, ondersoek die studie: (1) hoe CapeNature as bestuurder van die Cederberg Kompleks goeie regeerkunde toepas; (2) hoe ekotoerisme in die Cederberg Kompleks geïmplementeer en bestuur word; en (3) die identifisering van gevallestudies wat ekotoerisme in ‘n samewerkende proses suksesvol implementeer. Geïnspireer deur die nuutgevonde volledige begrip van ekotoerisme en goeie omgewingsregeerkunde, word voorstelle en die volgende stappe geïdentifiseer om die konsepte volledig en deeglik te implementeer.

Die studie beklemtoon die noodsaaklikheid van samewerking en goeie regeerkunde, van alle belanghebbendes in die Cederberg Kompleks, om ekotoerisme suksesvol te implementeer en die voordele te deel.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

3S Tourism	-	Sea, Sand and Sun Tourism
APO	-	Annual Plan of Operation
CB	-	Capacity Building
CFO	-	Chief Financial Officer
CHR	-	Cederberg Heritage Route
CM	-	Cederberg Local Municipality
CN	-	CapeNature
CoP	-	Community of Practice
DAFF	-	The Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries
DEA&DP	-	Department of Environmental Affairs and Development Planning
DEDAT	-	Department of Economic Development and Tourism
EIP	-	Environmental Implementation Plan
EMCA	-	Environmental Management Co-operation Agreement
EMP	-	Environmental Management Plan
EPWP	-	Expanded Public Works Programme
FTE	-	Full Time Equivalents
GCBC	-	Greater Cederberg Biodiversity Corridor
IDP	-	Integrated Development Plan
IUCN	-	International Union for Conservation of Nature
KEA	-	Key Ecological Attribute
KPI	-	Key Performance Indicators
LG:MFMA	-	Local Government: Municipal Finance Management Act
LTA	-	Local Tourism Association
LTO	-	Local Tourism Organisations
MAFIs	-	Market- and Agent-Focused Instruments
METT	-	Management Effectiveness Tracking Tool
MOU	-	Memoranda of Understanding
MTEF	-	Medium-Term Expenditure Framework

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NASA	-	National Aeronautics and Space Administration
NEM	-	National Environmental Management
NEM:PAA	-	National Environmental Management: Protected Areas Act
NEMA	-	National Environmental Management Act
NGO	-	Non-Governmental Organisation
NPO	-	Not for Profit Organisation
ODRS	-	Olifants-Doring River System
PAAC	-	Protected Area Advisory Committee
PBES	-	Provincial Biodiversity Economy Strategy
PBSAP	-	Provincial Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan
PPP	-	Public Private Partnership
PSDF	-	Provincial Spatial Development Framework
RAD	-	Rocklands Association for Development
RSA	-	Republic of South Africa
RTO	-	Regional Tourism Organisation
SABRI	-	South African Business Resources Institute
SAM	-	Strategic Adaptive Management
SANBI	-	South African National Biodiversity Institute
SC	-	Subcommittee
SDBIP	-	Service Delivery and Budget Implementation Plan
SDF	-	Spatial Development Framework
SMME	-	Small, Medium, and Micro Enterprises
SSI	-	Semi-structured interview
SWOT	-	Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats
TIES	-	The International Ecotourism Society
UN	-	United Nations
UNDP	-	United Nations Development Plan
UNEP-WCMC	-	United Nations Environment Programme - World Conservation Monitoring Centre

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UNESCAP	-	The United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
OHCHR	-	The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
WCCB	-	Western Cape Conservation Board
WCDM	-	West Coast District Municipality
WCED	-	World Commission on Environment and Development
WCNCB	-	Western Cape Nature Conservation Board
WTO	-	World Tourism Organisation

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND

Over the past few decades, protected areas have undergone a noticeable expansion, geographically and conceptually. In an attempt to conserve our plants and animals, governing authorities are implementing the rapid growth of protected areas resulting in the growing diversity of stakeholders (Watson, Dudley, Segan & Hockings, 2014:67). These protected areas are special areas dedicated to the conservation of nature, where the species can live separated from human pressure that might otherwise drive them towards extinction (Jones, Venter, Fuller, Allan, Maxwell, Negret & Watson, 2018:788). Protected areas play a pivotal role in maintaining habitat integrity and species diversity.

In 2015, protected areas covered more than 12.7 per cent of the planet's land surface (Geldmann, Barnes, Coad, Craigie, Hockings & Burgess, 2013:230). South Africa is home to ± 1 544 protected areas covering up to 8 per cent of the South African terrestrial and 12 per cent of the marine area (Geldmann *et al.,* 2013:230). South Africa's protected areas are set out to safeguard areas of land and sea (marine) and are governed by the National Environmental Management: Protected Areas Act (57 of 2003) (RSA, 2003a) functional under the National Environmental Management Act (107 of 1998) (RSA, 1998a) (United Nations Environment Programme – World Conservation Monitoring Centre (UNEP-WCMEC), 2019). According to the Protected Areas Act (RSA, 2003a:16), *protected areas* are rather an umbrella term encompassing several categories of environmentally protected areas: special nature reserves, national parks, nature reserves and protected environments. It also recognises world heritage sites, marine protected areas, special protected forest areas and mountain catchment areas (Department of Environmental Affairs (DEA), 2010:9).

Globally, over the past twenty years, the number of protected areas has grown significantly and so has the contact that local communities have with them. At times the growth conflicted with the need of local communities and with efforts to address poverty and to stimulate economic development. According to Watson *et al.* (2014:68) and supported by Singh and Dudley (2012:82), "Well-managed protected areas can provide crucial ecosystem services, including water, food security, protection and wild relatives of crops, maintenance of wild fish stock and carbon storage".

Aside from their conservational nature, if governed well, protected areas unlock great value for human society, economically, socially and ecologically. However, globally protected areas are under-resourced and poorly governed. Ultimately these factors threaten the effectiveness and value of

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protected areas. Recent studies have shown that roughly one-third of the world's protected areas are threatened with severe human pressure in forms of roads, mines, industrial logging, farms, townships and cities (Jones *et al.,* 2018:788).

It has become a general practice for the government to engage in partnerships with the private sector and other organisations to effectively address and manage rather complex issues. By breaking away from the traditional and strict top-down government rules and regulations and moving towards open relationships with other organisations and partners, governance can cover a wider spectrum of operational advantages.

Environmental challenges complex and multi-scaled and require more than a single linear top-down approach to be addressed. It requires collaboration across value chains, and across sectors to be addresses. It requires active citizenship and collaborative decision-making built on trust, accountability and managed with strategic vision. Good environmental governance, a practice driven by transparency, accountability, empowerment, and co-operative partnerships, plays a crucial role in not only sustaining conservational areas, but also ensuring that biodiversity is protected and effectively managed. Accordingly, uncoordinated governance and the lack of good management hinder sustainable development, reduce local benefit and ultimately hinder nature conservation. Since not all environmental issues can be solved through government regulations alone, the involvement of organisations from the public, as well as private and non-profitable sectors play an inessential role in forming powerful relationships and moving towards a governance regime (Erkuş-Öztürk & Eraydın 2010:1; Châu, Hübner & Phong, 2014:1). Good environmental governance plays an essential role in successfully managing protected areas with rich cultural history and natural tourist attractions.

The tourism sector is growing rapidly. In many countries, of which South Africa is one, biodiversity represents a primary tourist attraction (Singh & Dudley, 2012:95). Although local and national tourism activities can add value to the natural resources, in many tourist destinations, a substantial sum is generated by local tourism activities, with most of the proceeds going towards non-local service providers. Some other impacts include the increase in water consumption, a rise in waste and pollution, an increase in services and property and rapid changes in local public life. While recreational and tourism activities can greatly generate income and contribute to the conservation of protected areas, tourism may not always be sustainable and compatible with the standards of long-term protected areas as it can also trigger undesirable recreational development of protected areas,

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causing large scale impact on conservation (Buckley, 2004:74). Therefore, to be successful, context-specific tourism activities should be implemented, working in parallel with conservation. This will require careful, environmental governance.

1.1.1 Setting the scene

For this study, the researcher critically analysed the role of ecotourism and good environmental governance as tools to unlock value for protected areas. The Cederberg Complex is home to some of South Africa's most pristine ecological and geological wonders, with areological findings dating back to the Stone Age. Holistically, the Cederberg Complex consists of three parts, namely the Cederberg Wilderness, Matjies River Nature Reserve and Hexberg State Forest adding up to a total of approximately 79 687 hectares (CapeNature, 2019b:45). The Cederberg Complex, which is situated in the Cederberg Mountains, lies about 250 km north of Cape Town (see Addendum A for a map on the area).

According to the governing conservation authority of the area, namely CapeNature, the Cederberg Complex is a "World Heritage Site with a wilderness character built on community and partnership, managed to sustain and promote water, biodiversity, ecotourism and heritage for the benefit of all" (CapeNature, 2019b:vii). The area with its rugged mountains, is rich in ecological and plant communities such as the Cederberg Sandstone Fynbos and the semi-arid succulent Karoo, several endemic fish species and other mammals like the Cape Mountain Zebra, the Namaqua rock mouse and the Klipspringer. Avifauna, especially the Verreaux Eagle and other species like the endangered McLachlan's girdled lizard, are also prevalent in this area.

The Cederberg Complex's first inhabitants date back to the Stone Age, including the San and Khoi who lived in the Cederberg before the arrival of the early European settlers in the 17th century (CapeNature, 2012:54). The area, therefore, cradles various cultural structures such as kraals, graves and blockhouses as well as other historical treasures such as fine-line and finger artworks painters by the early Khoi-San people (CapeNature, 2012:55). The region is known for its tourism activities such as hiking and 4x4 vehicle trails, as well as campsites acting as a tool to stimulate access to visit the ecological heritage site, which is rich in beauty.

However, the socio-economical context of the region is not as vibrant. The region is greatly confronted by unemployment, low economic development, largely semi-skilled labour activities and a lack in community involvement (Cederberg Local Municipality, 2017a:64). The challenge therefore is not only

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to ensure tourism activities are governed leaving a minimal human footprint on the natural environment, but also to ensure these tourism activities stimulate local economic development and employment opportunities.

1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM AND OBJECTIVES

Given the problem description in the previous section, the purpose of this study is to: Investigate how good environmental governance and ecotourism could be utilised as tools to stimulate local economic development in the Cederberg Complex.

This will be achieved by means of the following objectives:

1. Conduct a theoretical exploration of the meaning of good environmental governance.
2. Conduct a theoretical exploration of the meaning of ecotourism.
3. Identify and provide insights regarding the main laws, policies and plans currently regulating ecotourism development in Protected Areas and the Cederberg Complex.
4. Investigate how CapeNature as governing authority of the Cederberg Complex adheres to good environmental governance principles.
5. Investigate how ecotourism is governed and implemented in the Cederberg Complex.
6. Identify success stories of collaboratively governed ecotourism activities in the Cederberg Complex.
7. Recommend on how to address main challenges hindering successfully well-governed ecotourism activities in the Cederberg Complex.

The case study in question is the Cederberg Complex, consisting of the Cederberg Wilderness, Matjies River Nature Reserve and Hex Berg State Forest which altogether cover an area of 79 735 hectares. The study set out to explore how good environmental governance principles are implemented to benefit nature conservation of the protected areas while supporting ecotourism within the area holistically.

The first objective was achieved through a theoretical exploration and literature review investigating the meaning of *good environmental governance*. The literature explored various governance systems, how it differs from the government as well as governance application to the environmental sphere. Conceptual papers which analysed the impact, meaning and criteria of “good governance” were identified.

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While tourism is often considered a viable option to generate income to improve the benefits of the conservational practises of protected areas, it should be done sustainably and adequately planned without hindering the sole purpose of protected areas. Ecotourism could be one such tourism type. Accordingly, the second literature review addressed the second research objective by reviewing the meaning of *ecotourism.* The third objective required the identification of the policy and legislative framework governing ecotourism development in the Cederberg Complex. Accordingly, the objective was achieved by reviewing national, provincial and regional legislation to ensure good governance in the set area.

The fourth, fifth and sixth research objectives were achieved through extensive literature reviews and conducting semi-structured interviews with relevant stakeholders, such as CapeNature, the Cederberg Local Municipality, the West Coast District Municipality, and the Department of Environmental Affairs and Development planning. Other stakeholders included private landowners and tourism organisations active in the area. The study concluded by reviewing the outcomes of the latter research objectives and recommending next steps towards successful implementation of good governed ecotourism activities in the Cederberg Complex.

1.3 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

To achieve the objectives, as mentioned in the previous section, a case study research methodology was applied and supported by a combination of both non-empirical and empirical research. The case study approach allows the researcher to explore a phenomenon in the real-life context (Yin, 2009:18, cited in Farquhar, 2012:6).

The empirical data was gathered by means of semi-structured interviews as well as the review and analysis of existing data. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with CapeNature's representatives with a focus on how they manage and implement ecotourism activities as an organisation and more specifically in the Cederberg Complex as well as how they adhere to good environmental governance principles. Other interview participants included municipal partners such as the Cederberg Local Municipality, the West Coast District Municipality, and the Western Cape Province's Department of Environmental Affairs and Development Planning (DEA&DP). For a holistic approach beyond the governmental sphere, the researcher interviewed private landowners and local tourism stakeholders active in the Cederberg Complex.

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The secondary data that were consulted were predominately governmental documents and records encapsulating both qualitative and quantitative data regarding the Cederberg Complex. These documents included management plans, annual reports, annual performance plans, Integrated Development Plans (IDP), and Spatial Development Frameworks (SDF), various national provincial laws, as well as other strategic documents. The consultation of these documents is reflected in chapter 4's legislative review.

The literature review was based on non-empirical research. Accordingly, the researcher consulted various academic literature focusses on the concept of good environmental governance and ecotourism and other relevant concepts as captured in chapter 2 and 3.

Limitations of the study: Willingness or availability of various stakeholders to contribute towards the study.

1.4 OUTLINE OF CHAPTERS

The following subsections will provide a summary of the chapters to be presented in the study:

Chapter 2: Understanding good environmental governance. This chapter consists of an extensive literature review that will provide the necessary understanding of the concept of *good environmental governance*. A large section of the chapter focuses on defining governance and how it differs from government and can be applied to the environmental sphere which forms environmental governance. Key ingredients to governing well are also discussed, as well as alternative governance applications.

Chapter 3: Understanding ecotourism. This chapter and a second literary review focus on understanding ecotourism, its relation to other tourism types and the fundamental aspects that differentiate ecotourism from them.

Chapter 4: Policies and regulatory framework guiding ecotourism in the Cederberg Complex. In this chapter, the South African Constitution (RSA, 1996), National Environmental Management: Protected Areas Act (57 of 2003) (RSA, 2003a), Tourism Act (3 of 2014) (RSA, 2014) as well as the relevant IDPs and SDFs were consulted to establish the support from government to foster good governance and ecotourism within the Cederberg Complex. As the Complex covers an area stretching beyond the

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Cederberg Local Municipality and into the West Coast District Municipality, both IDPs and SDFs are investigated.

Chapter 5: Research Methodology. This chapter explored the approach the researcher chose to collect the data as well as the research design for the study.

Chapter 6: Analysis and findings. The findings of the primary and secondary data that was collected and analysed are discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 7: Recommendations and conclusion. Based on the findings presented in chapter six, recommendations are made in this section based on the principles of good environmental governance as well as ecotourism activities.

In the next chapter the researcher will address the first research objective by investigating the meaning of good environmental governance and exploring various governance approaches.

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CHAPTER 2: AN INTRODUCTION TO GOOD ENVIRONMENTAL GOVERNANCE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Today the idea of environmental issues receiving global attention seems self-evident. The time of an environmental issue being underappreciated and addressed in isolation is over. However, it was not until the 1970s, when the images of the beautiful, yet fragile planet Earth captured by the Apollo 17 crew, that the environmental movement finally hit home: all life on Earth is interconnected and forms part of a global ecological system (Evans, 2012:27). Very seldom, all environmental problems can be solved through government regulations and financial and human resources alone. Rather, it requires active involvement from various organisations: governmental sectors, the private sector and civil society. Only by combining these three perspectives, opening issues for discussion looking beyond resilience and setting common goals, more robust solutions could be implemented. This chapter will aim to address the first objective of the study by exploring the theoretical meaning of *good environmental governance.*

The first section will explore the concept of *governance* as it forms the core of what is to be discussed. The term 'governance' is relatively ambiguous and quite often confused with 'government'. Governance is a broader term impacting all the conventional areas covered by the traditional definition of 'government'.

The following section will focus on the criteria required to govern well. Good governance is grounded on principles such as inclusivity, representatively, accountability, efficiency, and effectiveness, as well as social equity and justice (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT), 2007:54). Lacking thorough understanding and application of good environmental governance during decision-making processes may result in catastrophic environmental consequences.

In the third section, the concept of good governance will be applied to the environmental context — *good environmental governance*. Although the human species are in many ways superior to the rest of Earth's living creatures, they are in every way dependant on a healthy environment and ecology for survival. By attempting to increase control over nature and ecological systems for economic gain, they run a great risk of mismanagement that may lead to unintended and unexpected consequences, forever changing and potentially damaging the once pristine natural environment. As a result, and in

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an attempt to combat these crises, environmental governance emerged. According to South Africa's Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (2007:54), environmental governance is defined as decision-making, the processes engaging control and management of the environment and natural resources.

Lastly, although still relatively new in the academic field, the other forms of coordinated governance will be explored such as collaborative governance, adaptive governance, and private and public partnerships (PPP).

2.2 DEFINING GOVERNANCE

The term *governance* is popular but vague. Although the terms governance and government are very similar they are not synonyms and cannot be used interchangeably. Rather, governance implies a change in the meaning of government, leading "to a *new* process of governing; or a *change* in condition of ordered rule; or [a] *new* method by which society is governed" (Rhodes, 2002:209). Government, on the other hand, refers to a group of people and institutions that are responsible to manage and govern a country or state. Government typically consists of legislators (create and pass a law); administrators (implement state law); and arbitrators (enforce state law) (Civics Academy South Africa, 2016).

Masse, a former Canadian cabinet minister, motivated a transformational approach emphasising a change from government to that of governance. Urging the government to "no longer monopolise … programme delivery" but to rather welcome the participation and support from private and non-governmental organisations in delivering services effectively and efficiently. Governance challenges the productivity of governmental functions, its inflexibility and the red tape hindering its productivity to address public needs. Masse encourages a shift from vertical (traditional top-down) management strategies towards a more collaborative approach to manage programmes while empowering officials lower down in the organisation and ultimately integrating policies horizontally (United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), 1997:26).

According to Rhodes (2002:208-209), there are at least six different meanings of governance, namely governance as: (1) the minimal state; (2) corporate governance; (3) the new public management; (4) good governance; (5) a socio-cybernetic system; and (6) a self-organising network. It is, therefore, essential to establish a baseline definition of governance.

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1. Governance as the minimal state: This refers to a manner where public intervention and the use of markets and quasi-markets are used to deliver public services. As supported by Kooiman (2003:122), this approach to governance is less dependent on government and opens the market to privatisation, all in all causing a shift in management towards a neoliberalism approach. This ideology emphasises the notion of "less government" (Rhodes, 2002:210).

2. Governance as corporate governance: Here governance is referred to as the coordination by which organisations are directed and controlled, rather than executing a day-by-day business as usual (Kooiman, cited in Evans, 2012:13). This perspective identifies and applies three fundamental principles in public and private sectors, namely: (1) openness or the disclosure of information; (2) integrity or straightforward dealing and completeness; and (3) accountability or holding individuals responsible for their actions by a clear allocation of responsibilities and clearly defined roles (Rhodes, 2002:210). This approach to governance acts as a reminder of the important role and powerful influence that the management practises of the private sector have on the public sector.

3. Governance as the New Public Management: One of the earliest ways of implementing governance was to implement corporate management techniques into the public sector, also known as the New Public Management movement (Kooiman, 2003:105). The New Public Management consists of two traditional meanings namely managerialism and the new institutional economics. Managerialism welcomes private sector management methods to the public sector. According to Rhodes (2002:211), this approach aims to endorse "hands-on professional management, explicit standards and measures of performance; managing by results; value for money; and more recently, closeness to the customer". This approach is primarily focussed on balancing both effective management and service delivery and therefore views civil society as clients.

   On the other hand, the new institutional economics introduces the public service provision to incentive structures such as market competition. The approach focusses on disaggregating bureaucracies; greater competition through constructing-out and quasi-markets; and consumer choice (Rhodes, 2002:211). It is, therefore, more client-centred as it enables society to make use of the services that are most appealing to them. The transformation toward New Public Management is, therefore, focused on converting the public sector from "less government" to "more governance" (Rhodes, 2002:211).

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4. Governance as good governance: The fourth definition of governance refers to it as being "good". Leftwich identifies three stands to good governance, namely systemic, political and administrative governance (cited in Rhodes, 2002:212). Systemic governance covers the distribution of political and economic power, both internal and external. When applying governance according to political logic, all actions originate from a democratic mandate while upholding legitimacy and authority. Administrative governance refers to public services that are efficient, audited and accountable, which require the bureaucratic competencies to assist in the design and implementation of suitable policies and managing whatever public sector there is (Rhodes, 2002:212).

   Rhodes describes it as the marriage of "good governance" and New Public Management in order to encourage liberal democracy (Rhodes, 2002:212). Although, according to Kooiman this approach seems to be checklist-based, in practice it goes beyond just compliance (cited in Evans, 2012:13). Founded on the idea of accountability, transparency and strategic visions it enforces effective, fair and inclusive decision-making. This approach to governance will be discussed in further detail in the next section.

5. Governance as a socio-cybernetic system: Kooiman's (2003:122) views governance as a collaboration of governing parties working together and supporting one another. He, therefore, clarifies that the actioning of policy outcomes is not limited to central government only. Although the law may be passed by the centre, it undergoes a journey by interacting with many other institutions and bodies such as local government, health authorities, the voluntary sector and the private sector before being successfully approved. He continues to describe governance as "the result (or the total effects) of social-political-administrative interventions and interactions" (cited in Rhodes, 2002:213).

   No single public or private actor has access to all the information required to solve dynamic complex questions. Consequently, actors in particular policy areas are co-dependent and reliant on each other to share their relevant knowledge and ultimately make a policy work more effectively. This leads to Kooiman's perception of governance as a *socio-cybernetic system*. According to Kooiman, the world has transformed into a 'centreless society' — a "polycentric state characteri[s]ed by multiple centres" (cited in Rhodes, 2002:213). Government is now responsible to enable socio-political interactions; encourage the analysation and duplication of problems and the distribution of services amongst several actors. Hence facilitating collaboration and promoting dependence amongst different sectors in order to reach a mutual goal.

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Governance is therefore the product of interactive social-political forms of governing (Rhodes, 2002:214). This approach welcomes "the multiplicity of actors specific to each policy area; interdependence among these social-political-administrative actors; shared goals; blurred boundaries between public, private and voluntary sectors; and multiplying new forms of action, intervention and control" (Rhodes, 2002:214).

6. Governance as a self-organising network: Governance stretches beyond government and welcomes transformation to collaborate with private and voluntary sectors. If one takes a deeper look at service delivery, one finds it is predominantly building on several interdependent actors contributing towards the delivery of services. These dependencies create networks where resources can be exchanged ensuring objectives are achieved, influence over outcomes are maximised and forming dependencies on rival actors are avoided (Rhodes, 2002:214). In short, governance focusses on managing networks.

   Networks are a distinctive form of coordinating economic activity that is especially important in the public and private sector (Powell, cited in Rhodes, 2002:214). According to Larson (cited in Rhodes, 2002:214), the "co-ordinating activities" stimulates a sense of trust, reputation, exchange and mutual interdependence amongst parties. This governmental approach, therefore, declares networks as self-organising. Networks control themselves and cannot be controlled by a single actor. This implies self-governance and freedom as each actor can make use of the network as a means to an end. Although Rhodes is considered as one of the leading scholars adding great value to the field of governance, in order to fully grasp the concept, it is essential to explore alternative views before applying a mutually reinforcing consensus.

Graham, Amos and Plumptre (2003:ii) define governance as "the interactions among structures, processes and traditions that determine how power and responsibilities are exercised, how decisions are taken, and how citizens or other stakeholders have their say". The concept of *governance* is broad as it focuses on the collaborative nature to address public problems. It is therefore considered a more relaxed process as it involves various stakeholders, corporations, non-government organisations and individuals in contrast to government where processes are more fixed and occasionally red-tape oriented.

According to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), governance is defined as driving a country's economic, political and administrative authority towards managing its affairs at all levels. Governance embraces the necessary mechanisms, institutions and processes through which citizens

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and interest groups are enabled and empowered to "exercise their legal rights, meet their obligations and mediates their differences" (UNDP, cited in United Nations 2006:3).

Taking the aforementioned into account, governance transcends the traditional top-down approach to perform actions and includes non-state actors. Consequently, governance is more resilient by breaking the boundaries and welcoming interaction amongst public, private and voluntary sectors (civil society). Agreeably Schwella, Botha, Brand, Engelbrecht and Van Eijbergen (2015:14) explain that these interactions organise itself and forms networks to achieve mutual interests, understanding, agreement and action. Rooted in trust and application of relevant laws and frameworks, dependencies and negotiations are formed.

Governance has more than one specific definition and can be applied in more than one way. Acknowledging the complexity of defining *governance,* the researcher adopts the perspective of Schwella *et al.* (2015), Graham *et al.* (2003), and the UNDP (2006) and defines governance as *the interaction, networks and dependencies formed when various stakeholders, corporations or individuals from all walks of life (be it governmental sector, civil society, or private sector), come together to mediate their concerns and differences as a means to address public problems.* This definition also relates to the fifth and sixth approach to governance as explained by Rhodes (2002).

2.3 GOOD GOVERNANCE

Since the end of the cold war, the concept of good governance has been used in a limited capacity to reflect only the economic standing of creditor countries. Towards the turn of the century, the World Bank changed the meaning to include public administration, accountability to civil society, legal framework conditions, and transparency in public activities (Eke, Ugwuibe & Olise, 2019:114). The concept continued to evolve, and in 2002, the World Bank Institute developed governance indicators to address corruption control.

Fukuyama (2013), categorises governance as *good* or *bad* based on two dimensions – the state's capacity and autonomy of the bureaucracy (cited in Eke *et al.*, 2019:117). Fukuyama explains that, when a state functions well and, for example collecting taxes, there should be more autonomy as the bureaucrats can action deliverables well without being instructed with a lot of details (cited in Eke *et al.*, 2019:117). Accordingly, the opposite is also true, as less capable states often require more rules to achieve desired outcomes.

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It is essential to note that the concept of *good* environmental governance may have different meanings and connotations depending on its context (socio-economical or regional). Although it is difficult to confine to a singular definition, Grindle (2004) and the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (n.d.), agree that good governance relates to political and institutional processes, services and activities that are executed with a sense of efficiency, accountability and trust (cited in Eke *et al*., 2019:118; The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), n.d.). For a more robust understanding, it is necessary to identify the characteristics of good governance.

Section 195 of the South African Constitution (hereafter referred to as the Constitution) provides guidance on what embodies good governance (DEA, 2012:47). Accordingly, it describes a good governing entity as one that:

- Promotes and maintains a high standard of professional ethics;
- Advocates for the efficient, economical and effective use of resources;
- Implement development-oriented public administration;
- Provides service impartially, fairly, equitably and without bias;
- Responds to the people's needs, encourages the public to participate in policy-making;
- Upholds accountable public administration; and,
- Fosters transparency by providing the public with timely, accessible and accurate information;
- Implement robust human-resource management to simulate career-development and growth; and
- Address the imbalance and employ stuff based on ability, objectivity and fairness (DEA, 2012: 47; RSA, 1996:99).

The Constitution (RSA, 1996), therefore, provides the backbone to how the different structures (be it government, private sector, civil society or science) ought to practice environmental rights. Environmental problems can seldom be separated from social causes or contexts as they are intricately linked to governance practices (DEA, 2012:47). According to Fakier, Stephens and Tholin (2005:5), good environmental governance was identified as a critical success factor for South African environmental management. The Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism provides the following points on what good environmental governance should entail:

- Governance should be responsible and accountable;
- Regulations should be enforced;
- Integrating mechanisms and structures that facilitate participation should be established;
- Inter-ministerial and inter-departmental coordination is needed;

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- The institutional responsibilities for regulating environmental impacts and promoting resource exploitation should be separated;
- People should have access to information; and,
- There needs to be institutional and community capacity-building.

(White Paper on Environmental Management, cited in DEAT, 2005:54)

The Overseas Development Administration of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland identifies four key components of good governance: (1) legitimacy, where governing bodies are in agreement with the governed; (2) accountability, many times supported by transparency, ensuring liability and answerability for actions and media freedom; (3) competence, the ability of effective policymaking, implementation and service delivery and (4) respect, for law and protection of human rights (United Nations, 2006:4).

The United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP), identified and defined eight key attributes of good governance: (1) participation; (2) rule of law; (3) responsiveness; (4) transparency; (5) consensus orientation; (6) equity; (7) effectiveness and efficiency; and (8) accountability (cited in Eke *et al.*, 2019:118). As good governance is concerned with the performance and improvement of the people's service delivery, the UNDP added a nineth characteristic - strategic vision (Eke *et al.*, 2019:129; Schwella *et al*. 2015:26; the Institute on Governance, 2003:3).

Applying all nine these attributes (see figure 2.1) assures the decline of corruption; taking the views and voices of the minorities and vulnerable into account during decision-making; as well as addressing both the present and future needs of society (Eke *et al.*, 2019:118). Accordingly, most of the characteristics listed are interdependent, interrelated and mutually reinforcing, and can therefore not be isolated. Consequently, the UNDP grouped the nine elements under five broader themes (Schwella *et al*. 2015:26; the Institute on Governance, 2003:3).

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Figure 2. 1: Elements of Good Governance (adapted from UNESCAP 2009, cited in Eke *et al.*, 2019:118)

Table 2.1: Principles of good governance (Institute on Governance, 2003:4)

Good Governance Principles	The UNDP's principles
1. Legitimacy and Voice	Participation – in the ideal situation all people should voice their concerns and ideas during decision-making. This could be direct or referred through legitimate intermediate institutions that represent their interests. This kind of participation is fundamentally rooted in freedom of association of speech.
	Consensus orientation – mediated differing ideals to the best interests of the group, which will lead to increasing community capacity building.
2. Direction	Strategic vision – securing broad and long-term perspective and knowledge on good governance, human development as well as such development's necessities.
3. Performance	Responsiveness – requiring all institutions and processes to serve all stakeholders.
	Effectiveness and efficiency – striving towards processes and institutions that meets its needs and allocate resources in the best possible manner.
4. Accountability	Accountability – institutionalising of conditions where actors (be it government, private, public or voluntary sector) are responsible and answerable for their actions, activities and decisions towards fellow actors and stakeholders.
	Transparency – having open access to information, monitoring processes and institutions as this will lead to greater participation and result in effective decision-making.
5. Fairness	Equity – providing all people with opportunities to advance or uphold their well-being.
	Rule of Law – this aspires to legal frameworks that are fair and enforced impartially.

As seen in Table 2.1, the majority of the characteristics are "not water-tight". When applying the principles to current governance challenges it is important to note that although the principles are highly endorsed, they are not absolute. Governance varies across contexts and cultures. At some

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point, the principles may conflict with one another and it calls for balance and judgement in their application. It is, therefore, crucial to fully understand the social context (referring to history, culture and technology) before applying the principles in practice and consequently hindering the balance. Only then does it make sense to elaborate on the principles in order to create a meaningful analytical tool (Institute on Governance, 2003:4).

Good governance should empower citizens to trust in and entrust themselves to the rule of law (UNDP, 1997:71). Although governance welcomes partnerships with other sectors, the state must implement mechanisms to limit arbitrary powers and authorities in governmental and private sectors to prevent the abuse of power. Good governance is for the benefit of all and should, therefore, welcome participation from marginalised groups to the national dialogue.

In summary, good governance requires ethical judgement and effectivity. The government should aspire to govern well and ensure their actions uphold the United Nations' principles of good governance by acting accountable, with strategic vision, and fairly.

2.4 EMERGENCE OF ENVIRONMENTAL GOVERNANCE

Today the idea of environmental issues being global seems self-evident. It is common knowledge that all living things are interconnected and part of a bigger ecological system. However, it was not until recent developments that humans realised the magnitude of this bigger system as well as the long-lasting impact and unintended consequences our actions may have on the planet (Nash, cited in Evans, 2012:26).

The emergence of environmental science was critical in establishing environmental problems as global issues requiring global action to be addressed (Evans, 2012:27). Emerging from the field of thermodynamics, systems thinking enabled scientists to not only view the Earth as a system of its own but to conceptualise the ecological, atmospheric and hydrological components of the planet as part of a single interlinked system of energy exchange (Evans, 2012:27). This revelation leads to an understanding of the interlinkages amongst species in terms of the food chain, and inspired man to measure, predict and manage the performance of nature (Kwa, cited in Evans, 2012:27).

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Inspired by systems thinking, the infamous *Limits to Growth*[1] study (also known as the World3 model) focussing on the interaction between population, economic activity and resource usage was developed. In essence, the theory explores how overexploitation of finite resources would lead to cycles of growth and collapse sometime in the twenty-first century. The limits of growth haunt many of the ideas underpinning environmental thought today, yet it was not until the broadcast of the US Apollo moon mission that many of these ideologies hit home (Evans, 2012:27). Somehow a simple image of the *blue marble* surrounded by infinity captured the truth about our planet — fragile and finite (see figure 2.2).

This powerful image showcasing no national boundaries or human features was quickly utilised by environmental organisations to promote globalisation and that we as the hosts of the planet *can* and *should* care for it. In response to this newly acquired sense of unity, the United Nations (UN, 2006), hosted a series of key international conferences on the topic of environment and development to help the world absorb the notion of a global environment in need of governing and governable (Biermann, cited in Evans, 2012:29).

As the Cold War was approaching its end in the late 1980s, the concern surrounding environmental security grew. Developing countries harboured serious misgivings about Western environmentalism, fearing that conservation would hinder their economic development. This formed the contextual background for the birth of *sustainable development* vowing an alternative to economic growth in the developing world while addressing global environmental problems (Evans, 2012:30).

Figure 2. 2: The Blue Marble (National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), 1972)

Globalisation and the notion of the globe becoming one integrated market greatly contributed to the rise of environmental governance. Globalisation caused a painful adjustment for economies to be more internationally competitive. It also unlocked a fair share of problems such as inequality, due to a growing gap between the rich and poor, and an increase in controlling and manipulating the natural environment for selfish economic gain (Gunderson, Cosens & Garmestani, *et al.*, 2016:354).

[1] Meadows, Donella H; Meadows, Dennis L; Randers, Jørgen; Behrens III, William W (1972). *The Limits to Growth; A Report for the Club of Rome's Project on the Predicament of Mankind*. New York: Universe Books.

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The traditional day-to-day work regime changed and forced traditional governing systems to adjust accordingly. Traditional top-down national governments simply do not have the financial and human resources to address these matters on their own. Diverting to governance and more collaborative approaches would be more rewarding.

Environmental governance speaks of the decision-making processes regarding the control and management of environmental and natural resources. It also directs its attention to the manner in which decisions are made (Fakier *et al.*, 2005:4). Government is no longer the only actor responsible for the management, exploitation and conservation of natural areas and resources, but rather welcomes outside actors to partake in the endeavour. Many environmental groups, civic groups and labour unions have become promoters for better and fairer environmental decisions (Fakier *et al.*, 2005:4). Several industries, trade association and professional associations are also greatly contributing towards more "environmentally friendly" business ethics, for example, promoting cleaner processes and sourcing resources sustainably.

The concept of *environmental governance,* therefore, speaks of connecting governance with environmental affairs. According to Lemos and Agrawal (2006), environmental governance refers to changes in environmental-related incentives, policies, knowledge, institutions, decision-making and behaviours to ultimately influence environmental actions and outcomes (2006:298). Therefore, environmental governance is concerned with what Lemos and Agrawal would label the "public bads" – implications and outcomes of environmental problems such as climate change, ozone depletion, and carbon emissions (Lemos & Agrawal, 2006:301). As these issues are internationally present and cannot be addressed by a single nation, global cooperation and environmental governance is needed.

According to Lemos and Agrawal, environmental governance are greatly shaped and influenced by four main themes – (1) globalisation, (2) decentralised environmental governance, (3) market-and individual-focused instruments, and (4) governance across scales (2006:299).

1. Globalisation: The concept of globalisation refers to the interconnectedness of environments, societies and economies, free trade, liberalisation, the fading of national boundaries and emergence of the global trade markets (Madeley, 2009:52; Lemos & Agrawal, 2006:300). Accordingly, Madeley describes the strong connection to the word and movement of resources by comparing it to a simple sneeze, "when someone sneezes in one part of the world, everyone catches [a] cold" (Madeley, 2009:52). This powerful analogy cleverly highlights the emergence of global pressures and environmental threats and the associated shift towards a diversity of

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new global regimes, networks and organisations to tackle such issues by means environmental governance (Lemos & Agrawal, 2006:300).

Modern environmental governance is founded on seven main tools: (1) consolidating scientific, technological, and lay knowledge and at easy accessible trustworthy data; (2) providing sufficient redundancy and flexibility in functional performance; (3) coordinating the engagement of multi-stakeholders; (4) understanding the value of the engagement between international regimes and nonstate actors to effect environmental and economic change; (5) identifying modalities of collaboration that exceeds legal orders; (6) breaking traditional top-down management by working across scales to strengthen collaboration and synergy to address common goals; and (7) advocating for social learning and negotiation towards a commonality (Lemos & Agrawal, 2006:302). However, these mechanisms may also fail to limit the negative externalities emerging from lack of implementation capacity. Their characteristic reliance on decentralized action and interdependent coordination and their lack of instruments to deal with systems disruption and unanticipated systemic effects mean that major environmental problems may be difficult to address directly and efficaciously through them.

2. Decentralised environmental governance: Although globalisation, socio-political transformation and climate change are widely associated with global environmental governance issues, environmental governance is not limited to the global stage (Lemos & Agrawal, 2006:302). Environmental governance is equally important at local scales to address the challenges faced at lower-level administrative units such as local biodiversity loss, deforestation, a decline in fisheries and soil erosion.

   Local states are faced with severe economic pressures and limited resources and capacity to address and manage their environments. Respectively, the shift towards more democratic political processes resulted in greater participation and active citizenship to form governance relationships and established new lines with local organisations and institutionalised authorities (Lemos & Agrawal, 2006:303). According to Agrawal (2005), incentivising individuals to participate in new institutionalised arrangements not only results in the shaping individual subjects required for effective environmental governance but also unlocks more local knowledge, capacity building and individual rationality to govern the environment (cited in, Lemos & Agrawal, 2006:305).

3. Market- and agent-focused instruments (MAFIs): The MAFIs are strategic tools utilised to incentivise individuals in favour of environmentally positive outcomes and usually associated

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with benefits associated with specific environmental strategies (Lemos & Agrawal, 2006:305). MAFIs are presented in various forms such as environmental taxes - designed to raise revenue to offset environmental damages such as the overexploitation of stresses resources or carbon emissions. Other MAFIs are executed through voluntary agreements - specially negotiated to meet environmental targets, often practised by industry leaders and corporate actors, to lower waste generation (Lemos & Agrawal, 2006:305). On the other hand, certification schemes and ecolabeling proof to be as effective when producers agree to meet prescribed environmental production- and marketing standards. To ensure transparency and accountability, these standards are governed by third party actors or industry associations (Lemos & Agrawal, 2006:305).

4. Cross-scale environmental governance: Environmental issues are complex and often viewed as multiscalar – spatially, socio-politically and temporally (Lemos & Agrawal, 2006:308). Spatially environmental problems are challenges by its cause-and-effect as well as the costs-and-benefits. Lemos and Agrawal, explains this notion by referring to global climate change as an example. Although climate change is predominately a result of major producers omitting greenhouse gasses in the developed world, its effects are felt far and wide and even reaches the low-emitting countries (2006:308). In an attempt to govern these unintended consequences, multilateral and bilateral environmental agreements were signed.

   On the socio-pollical scale, environmental problems are felt on all levels – locally, subnational, national and transnational (Lemos & Agrawal, 2006:309). Subsequently, a multi-level governance approach is utilised to combat fragmentation. By collaborating with cross-scale governance partnerships such as NGOs, transnational environmental organisations, intergovernmental and multilateral organisations, and market-oriented actors a more robust and solution could be reached to reshape the environmental policy arena (Lemos & Agrawal, 2006:309).

   The cross-temporal scale is faced with two major issues, the first contempocentrism and the second the cause and effect of long-term environmental conditions (Lemos & Agrawal, 2006:309). According to Singh (2017), contempocentrism refers to the “human pre-occupation with the present, costing future-generations” (2017). This supports the notion of “spending” the natural environment now and investing in mass-development and production at the cost of nature’s and future generation’s health (Lemos & Agrawal, 2006:309). The second cross-temporal implication lies in the simple truth that many consequences or effects of our human actions (for example climate change) are yet to be determined (Lemos & Agrawal, 2006:309).

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Erkuş-Öztürk and Eraydın (2010:114) define environmental governance as "dealing with problems of crises, initiating environmental planning projects based on consensus-generating processes, protecting and improving natural assets, and developing proactive actions though new projects". Consequently, good environmental governance refers to the process of managing and stewarding natural resources and the natural environment in an effective, collaborative, accountable and justly manner. To be effective, environmental governance requires knowledge and aggregation of human activity at all levels where resources are exploited. Global environmental governance is more than cross-sectoral partnerships working towards addressing environmental pressures. It functions beyond national borders and mobilises and decentralise local (and international) partnerships by engaging with producers and economic giants to encourage active citizenship, conscious consumerism and public participation to manage natural resources.

Effective environmental governance "leads to fair and sustainable management of ecosystems" (DEAT, 2005:5). Likewise, the lack of good environmental governance causes environmental degradation. It is crucial to continuously strive to improve the processes and institutions we use to make important environmental decisions to yield better results, reduce environmental impact, and implement a fairer distribution of the costs and benefits related to natural resources (DEAT, 2005:5; Fakier *et al.*, 2005:4).

In an attempt to avoid the vile consequences of weak environmental governance, the UNDP identified seven Precepts of Effective National Environmental Governance:

1. Environmental laws should be clear, even-handed, implementable and enforceable: In order for environmental governance system to be effective and enforceable, the environmental laws should be clear, even-handed, and implementable and stipulated in an enforceable language (UNEP, 2011:5). Consequently, general legal mandates should guide the implementation, regulation and facility-specific permits without any ambiguity and cause for misinterpretation. All laws and regulations should be handled fairly and impartially during their design and application. Participation might add particular value ensuring that all vital interests and the views of all environmental stakeholders are considered and contribute towards a final decision being made. Environmental law should welcome the assistance of scientific information and so the implementations of technology to ensure sound decision-making. As knowledge is ever-growing and the environment ever-changing the environmental laws need to be continuously reviewed to ensure that it is up to standard concerning new knowledge (UNEP, 2011:5).

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2. Environmental information should be shared with the public: By making environmental information public it not only enables society to actively ensure accountability but also reinforces and builds on the government's effort to govern with accountability (UNEP, 2011:5). It also enables scientists to perform research, monitor and evaluate environmental issues. Collectively this information, policies and environmental programmes can be adjusted and reviewed more effectively. According to the UNEP, reported information generally leads to public debate, influences consumer behaviour and may even "leverage the 'power of shame' and competitive pressure as compliance motivators" (UNEP, 2011:6).

3. Affected stakeholders should be allowed to participate in environmental decision-making: By promoting public participation during important decision-making processes will not only improve the accessibility to information but also create the opportunity to explore alternative ideologies prior to decision-making stages and challenge post-decisions in front of a neutral court (UNEP, 2011:6). Civil society should be encouraged to question flawed or dishonest governmental decisions and have the opportunity to engage with regulators on regulations affecting them. By improving communication and educational skills public awareness and understanding may be enhanced which may greatly result in healthier public participation (UNEP, 2011:6).

4. Environmental decision-makers, both public and private, should be accountable for their decisions: As mentioned in the previous section, effective governance is greatly dependant on accountability. In order to uphold effective environmental governance, the government must be accountable to make principled decisions, established in science and law, to ensure confidence in the impartiality and public purpose of their actions (UNEP, 2011:6).

5. Roles and lines of authority for environmental protection should be clear and coordinated: In order to regulate effectively and coordinate regulations, all rules and roles should be defined understandably. In many instances, clear protocols are developed to coordinate tasks and responsibilities amongst governmental institutions. This is the case for centralised and decentralised environmental governance protection structures (UNEP, 2011:7). At a national level, laws should be clearly defined and indicate whether environmental protection programmes would be administrated by independent agencies or by other programmes. As some of these programmes are conducted with business-enabling-functions, it is essential to structure the agencies in such a way that avoids the business of "capturing" the environmental

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protection function (UNEP, 2011:7). Formally structured relationships between national-level agencies tend to be more effective in reaching their environmental objectives.

To clarify roles and rules of engagement, prevent conflict and minimize competition, the roles can be stipulated in laws, regulations or inter-agency Memoranda of Understanding (MOUs) (UNEP, 2011:7). When multiple levels of government are involved, labour division should be clearly defined between the national, provincial and local levels.

6. Affected stakeholders should have access to environmental dispute resolution mechanisms that are fair and responsive: The judiciary plays a vital role in cultivating society's perception on a certain topic. What a judge treat as important, society comes to judge as important. Therefore, a society's perception of environmental problems can greatly be transformed by a court's reaction to an environmental problem. The judiciary's response can result in the development of a powerful environmental ethic. Once an ethic is established it can influence the responsibility of all sectors of society, as well as the citizens' activities and products they purchase. Ultimately, it could have a dramatic effect on the business market systems, e.g. the ethic may encourage citizens to buy "green" products, source their goods locally, and encourage businesses to develop and uphold their own corporate environmental conscience and develop stronger value chains (UNEP, 2011:8).

   Publishing court judgements play an important role in regulating the community to comply with imperatives while also promoting general awareness of the importance of environmental protection. The justice system should judge each case principled and even-handedly, ruling similar cases alike and establishing a penalty baseline that summarises benefits of noncompliance (UNEP, 2011:8).

7. Graft and corruption in environmental programme delivery can obstruct environmental protection and mask results and must be actively prevented: Environmental governance does not operate within a vacuum. Rather it integrates with and complements good governance aspects within governmental systems while combatting corruption within the environmental governance system. Corrupt and unprincipled decision-making hinders the implementation of programmes, conceals environmental results, and crumbles public trust in the environmental rule of law (UNEP, 2011:8).

   Individual actors may find it difficult to comply with environmental requirements. It is therefore essential to address the corruption issue amongst the environmental officers. By implementing anti-corruption measures, standards of ethical conduct and independent internal review

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mechanisms, corrupt government officials are facing more and more challenges to pursue their fraudulent behaviours. These mechanisms are not only there to ferret out corruption, but also to protect "whistle-blowers" (UNEP, 2011:9).

In conclusion, effective environmental governance plays a crucial role in addressing environmental challenges. It is equally important to understand that there is no "blueprint" or "one-size-fits-all" plan to eradicate environmental challenges or to achieve global environmental sustainability. Rather, these seven principles are core guidelines to uphold in order to effectively govern environmental affairs and address complex issues.

2.5 COORDINATED GOVERNANCE IN PRACTICE

The modern age's resources are challenged with complexity and require a common focus and coordination amongst various sectors and role-players to make the best of resources and expertise (Muller, 2009:83). As explored in section 2.2, the change from government to governance calls for resilience and innovation. Governance diverts from linear top-down management and involves a fuller range of individuals and organisation to contribute towards decision-making processes (Plummer & Fennell, 2009:153). Empowered by decentralisation and inspired by innovation more participatory approaches emerged to address modern-day matters. However, in South Africa, there are oftentimes fragmentation and a lack of coordination amongst various implementation agents ultimately hindering successful execution (Muller, 2009:83). Therefore, this section will explore three participatory governance approaches oftentimes applied to address complex issues, namely collaborative governance, public-private partnerships (PPP), and adaptive governance.

2.5.1 Collaborative Governance

The concept of collaborative governance goes beyond the definition of governance. Although the practice of collaborative governance has long been used in the public management field, academic research on the concept is still relatively new, with most of the published research dated within the last decade (Morse, 2011:953).

Broadly stated, collaborative governance is best understood as an umbrella term describing "various system designs and processes through which public agencies work together with the private sector, civil society, and the public to identify problems, issues, and potential solutions; design new policy frameworks for addressing them; implement programs; and enforce policies" (Amsler, 2016:700).

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Collaborative governance, therefore, differs from traditional command and control systems by welcoming negotiation, dialogue, deliberation, and consensus as well as utilising multiple knowledge resources and abilities (Amsler, 2016:702; Gunningham, 2009:149).

Amsler (2016:702) argues that collaborative governance includes the voices of both the public and stakeholders to influence decisions across the policy continuum. This process is modelled in figure 2.3, illustrating the policy process from upstream to downstream. The stream does not focus on one single agency, as it can include all three branches of government simultaneously.

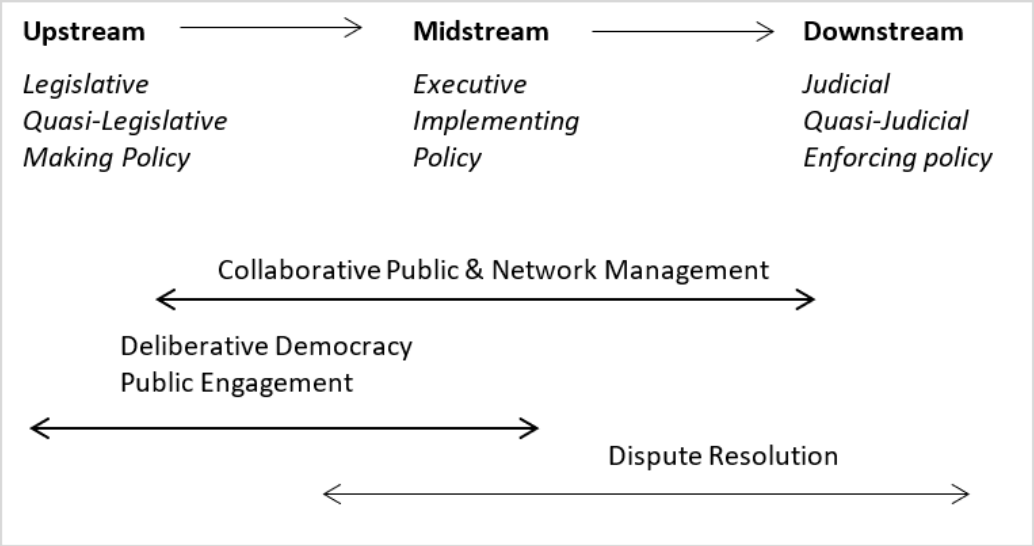

Figure 2. 3: Collaborative Governance: Voice Process across the Policy Continuum (Amsler, 2016:703)

Upstream focuses on a broader spectrum of participants. Here the stream generally moves from the civil society to stakeholders, to parties to a dispute. Upstream can, therefore, be described as the quasi-legislative policy-making arena in which public engagement, dialogue and public deliberation takes place (Amsler, 2016:702). Midstream is defined as the policy implementation and management phase. Here the three voices overlap, joining the collaborative public and network management with stakeholders in the attempt to stimulate public engagement and resolve environmental disputes. Downstream represents the governmental actor that facilitates the negotiation, mediation and other forms of dispute resolution processes. This all happens within the executive branch and quasi-judicial arena (Amsler, 2016:703).

In contrast, Ansell and Gash (2007:544) define collaborative governance as: “A governing arrangement where one or more public agencies directly engage non-state stakeholders in a collective decision-

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making process that is formal, consensus-oriented, and deliberative and that aims to make or implement public policy or manage public programs or assets". This robust definition alludes to the human factor and relational dynamics in the governance system (O'Boyle & Shilbury, 2018:334). Accordingly, collaborative governance: (1) aims to affect public policy or public management; (2) involves public agencies and non-state actors; (3) stimulate active participation and cohesion in decision-making; and (4) is formally managed by a forum or board (O'Boyle & Shilbury, 2018:334; Ansell & Gash, 2007:544).

A critical component of the definition lies in the term governance. As thoroughly discussed in this chapter it can be defined as *The interaction, networks and dependencies formed when various stakeholders, corporations or individuals from all walks of life, be it governmental sector, civil society, or private sector, come together, mediate their concerns and difference as a means to address public problem (*researcher synthesis*, adapted from* Schwella *et al. (2015),* Graham *et al. (2003)*, the UNDP (2006); and Rhodes (2002)).

Although there are many forms of collaborations involving non-state actors, Ansell and Gash's (2007:545-546) definition stipulates a specific role for public agencies. By using the term "public agency", they do not limit governing actions to the government only, but rather welcome public participation from institutions such as bureaucracies, courts, legislatures, and other governmental bodies at the local, state, or federal level. In order for collaborative governance to effectively address environmental issues it should, therefore, include the representation of all relevant interest groups.

People interact with the rest of civil society in different ways, have different interests and belong to different organisations. Once an individual or organisation has an interest or stake in any project or activity, they become stakeholders (Swanepoel & De Beer, 2011: 20). Ansell and Gash (2007) agree with Swanepoel and De Beer (2011) that the term "stakeholder" is not limited to the participation of citizens as individuals but is also applied to the participation of organised groups.

Collaborative governance is not only consultative but encourages two-way communication and influences between stakeholders as well as public agencies, making the process *collective*. Different agencies and stakeholders gather together, negotiate, mediate and undergo multilateral deliberation. Ansell and Gash (2007: 546) describe the process as "formal" in order to distinguish collaborative governance from casual and conventional methods of agency-interest group interaction. Although the

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process should welcome public participation and non-state stakeholders, formal arrangements and organisational structure apply.

Forums do not always succeed in reaching a consensus; Ansell and Gash (2007:547) argue that for collaborative governance to be effective the process of meeting together in a deliberative, multilateral manner, formal forums must strive toward reaching a consensus at minimum areas of agreement. Unlike other forms of consensus decision-making, collaborative governance primarily focuses on public issues. While Ansell and Gash (2007:547) recognise the ambiguous boundaries between public and private affairs, they restrict the use of collaborative governance to public affairs.

In summary, collaborative governance is based on voluntary and consensual engagement, they are designed to be accountable, transparent and effective and therefore require some structure and formality while still allowing for flexibility to accommodate participatory decision-making (Emerson & Gerlack, 2014; Ansell and Gash, 2007:544; Amsler, 2016:704). It requires leadership to manage conflict and build trust (Emerson & Gerlack, 2014), to connect various stakeholders (civil society and voluntary sector) and could be embodied in the form of a forum or board (O'Boyle & Shilbury 2018:334; Ansell & Gash, 2007:545-546). Collaborative governance advocates for participatory decision-making by sharing knowledge and promoting deliberation to design, implement and change resource complexities.

2.5.2 Adaptive Governance

Our natural world is constantly confronted with change and manipulation to secure ecosystem goods and services to benefit humankind. With our increasing desire to control nature, we have been successful in achieving social and economic objectives often at the cost of environmental and ecological components (Wyborn, 2015:56; Gunderson *et al.*, 2016:354). Although we would like to think we are knowledgeable on the environment, the fact remains that our actions may result in unintended and unexpected ecological consequences that could dramatically alter and reduce the services our modern society so deeply reply on. Such a crisis can reveal a failure in policy and management approaches (Gunderson *et al.*, 2016:354). In response to these crises and to avoid further failure, new forms of governance have emerged. One of which being Adaptive Governance. However, the foundation concept of *adaptive management* should first be understood.

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Introduced by Holling in 1978[2], the concept of *adaptive management*, became a game-changer instilling cooperation amongst various stakeholders and institutions to improve decision-making (Allen, Fontaine, Pope & Garmestani*,* 2011*;* Muller, 2014). This "learning by doing" tool was considered to be the father of resilience for reducing uncertainty. By managing objectives and having a well-structured feedback process in place, continuous improvement can be achieved (Allen *et al*., 2011:1340). Although the implementation of adaptive governance is challenged by various obstacles, it was successful in creating a paradigm shift towards a more structured and informed decision-making process. As a result, it formed the foundation for various other successors to follow such as the adaptive governance approach.

Adaptive governance has been embraced as a suitable approach to study environmental management in a changing environment (Emerson & Gerlak, 2013:768; Schultz, Folke, Österblom & Olsson, 2015:7369; Gunderson, Cosen & Garmestani, 2016:357). By first understanding the changes confronting seascapes and landscapes, adaptive governance follows a knowledge-centred approach to manage these changing environments and govern them as complex social-ecological systems (Schultz *et al.*, 2015:7369).

As with many other forms of governance, this approach includes stakeholders from various networks with complementary interest, allowing them to work together to improve resource management. Adaptive governance functions as a conceptual umbrella term, covering approaches seeking to integrate the knowledge of social-ecological systems to stimulate inclusive decision-making, the sharing of knowledge, as well as monitoring and changing the system's behaviours (Evans, 2012:38; Wyborn, 2015:57; Schultz *et al.*, 2015:7369). As with all relationships, success is greatly dependant on mutual trust amongst stakeholders, continuous learning from one another, reflection on procedures and structures, and ultimately working towards a common goal (Schultz *et al.*, 2015:7373).

Adaptive governance is polycentric, implying a network of smaller and more local governance units co-existing within larger, more general ones. Ideally, these smaller units will facilitate the production and dissemination of new social-ecological knowledge that is to be used and shared amongst all communities contributing towards better and more informed management, decision-making and resource usage (Gunderson *et al.,* 2016:354).

[2] Holling CS (1978). *Adaptive Environmental Assessment and Management.* John Wiley & Sons.

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In conclusion, adaptive governance incorporates both formal and informal groups and networks, sharing responsibilities and complements adaptive management by addressing past failures and sharing lessons learned (Gunderson, cited in Gunderson *et al.,* 2016:354). Adaptive governance, is therefore, an effective and resilient network of small groups collaborating to shift social values, norms and address ecosystems services (Gunderson *et al.,* 2016:359; Schultz *et al.*, 2015:7373).

2.5.3 Public-Private Partnerships (PPP)

The concept of Public-Private Partnerships (PPP) describes the cooperation model and long-term legal agreement between public authorities and the private sector's jointly owned enterprises and are usually established to provide services for the public, especially at a local level (Albu, 2012:60; Mouraviev & Kakabadse, 2016:159). Although the meaning of the concept is captured in various scholarly works of literature there is still no single definition that academics and practitioners agree on. This is mostly due to the variation in the way countries implement the approach. By agreeing to partner with a private sector institution, the government are addressing funding shortages, accelerating the construction of infrastructure, achieving better risk sharing, promoting effective governance and improving public service and output efficiency (Cheng, Ke, Lin, Yang & Cai, 2016:1242).

According to Kooiman (2003:102), during the 1970s the state and private sector were quite alienated from each other. It was not until the 1990s that greater involvement of civil society groups, both public and private parties began interacting. Arguably, Kooiman (2003:102) views PPPs as a form of co-governance, defined as "an increase of the recognition by government and the private sector of the necessity of channel, or even exploit, mutual interdependencies by means of co-operation".

Entering PPP unlocks various benefits. Governments can increase their access to market expertise, cost-awareness and other relevant business "know-how" qualities represented by the public sector. By establishing strong relationships with governmental sectors, private sectors may gain insight into the public administration process and potentially benefit from addressing and ultimately eradicating social, legal and administrative bottlenecks (Kooiman, 2003:102).

According to Kooiman (2003:102), ensuring effective PPP functionality requires certain characteristic to be met. Establishing trust from an early point in a cooperative relationship brings about mutual respect and adaption. Clear communication allows for clearly expressed common objectives, division of responsibilities and authorities and the so-called "rules of the game" (Kooiman, 2003:102).

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In conclusion, a public-private partnership is a structured collaborative network public and private actors working together towards delivering better public services at local levels. PPPs can vary in size and fall under the collaborative governance umbrella term.

2.5.4 Review

Although collaborative governance and public-private partnerships may sometimes refer to the same phenomenon, they are not synonyms. As the name states (and explored in section 2.5.3), the functioning key to a public-private partnership (PPP) is cooperation. Accordingly, it represents an agreement between public and private actors striving towards effective service delivery or the execution of other value-adding tasks. Unlike collaborative governance, the primary goals of the PPPs are to achieve coordination - collective decision-making is secondary. In contrast, the institutionalisation of the collective decision-making process is central to the definition of collaborative governance (Ansell & Gash, 2007:548). Collaborative governance can, therefore, be seen as an umbrella term covering Public-Private Partnerships as one possible manifestation (Agrawal and Lemos, 2007, cited in Emerson & Gerlak, 2014:769).

Collaborative governance varies in scale, purpose and structure. Although it is based on voluntary and consensual engagement, collaborative governance is usually associated with formal agreements to be more transparent and to support the somewhat hierarchical structures (Emerson & Gerlak, 2014:770). On the other hand, adaptive governance is similar to collaborative governance by also sharing knowledge and cooperating across sectors. However, it is less structured and polycentric as it operates with more than one actioning unit (Gunderson *et al.,* 2016:354; Ansell and Gash 2007: 546).

In conclusion, there is a consensus that best practice in good environmental governance points to decentralised, multi-stakeholder, transparent and consensus seeking platforms – in other words collaborative environmental governance.

2.6 CONCLUSION

The literature in this chapter explored the rather broad concept of *governance*. Once established that there is a rather great difference between government and governance the literature explored various definitions of governance. In summary, governance refers to the partnerships formed between civil society and private and governmental sectors that stimulate a sense of trust, negotiation, and dialogue to address public issues by sharing resources and knowledge.

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This was followed by a discussion of *good governance*, and its benefits for all, including the elements necessary to govern well as identified by the UNDP. Some of these principles are mutually reinforcing and cannot be isolated. However, these principles are merely a guideline, as contexts differ, causing some principles to conflict, calling for balance and judgement in their application. It is, therefore, crucial to fully understand the social context of the state or country.

Applying the aforementioned to an environmental aspect refers to *good environmental governance* which is the main concept for this thesis. The application and continuation of *good environmental governance* will lead to the fair and sustainable management of ecosystems, fairer distribution of the costs and benefits related to natural resources and less environmental impact. Equally so, failure to uphold these principles cause environmental degradation. Consequently, the UNDP identified seven guidelines that apply to good environmental governance. If successfully implemented, environmental law will eliminate ambiguity, judge even-handedly, document transparently, encourage public participation from civil society and stakeholders and conduct all actions accountably with anti-corruption mechanisms in place.

Lastly, the concepts of collaborative and adaptive governance were discussed. Although they are similar in consulting other spheres and bodies of knowledge, they are executed quite differently. In essence, adaptive governance only takes place once an issue that needs to be addressed is identified, whilst collaborative governance goes through a process of adding knowledge to a topic by following a certain protocol and calling for a consensus. Only once consensus is reached, the new knowledge is transferred to the managing authorities or decision-makers.

The next chapter will explore the meaning of tourism through an environmental lens with a particular focus on ecotourism. The goal is to get a more robust understanding and holistic view of the ecotourism paradigm, its relation to other forms of tourism such as sustainable, nature-based and mass tourism.

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CHAPTER 3: AN INTRODUCTION TO ECOTOURISM

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will address the study's second objective by conducting a theoretical exploration of the meaning of *ecotourism.* Protected or conservation areas, such as the Kruger National Park or the Victoria Falls National Park, are some of the world's most prime tourist attractions, but hosting tourists causes great strain on the ecology as is goes hand in hand with infrastructure, travel gas emissions, and facilities. Tourism may trigger residential development adjacent to protected or conservation areas leading up to large-scale impact on conservation. However, tourism may also be utilised as a tool to unlock positive results such as converting relatively degraded areas into protected areas, national parks or World Heritage sites (Buckley, 2004:75). By shifting the approach of tourism to be more conservation-oriented and having a minimum impact on the environment, a balance between positive and negative tourism development can be achieved.

As a means to combat the environmental degradation mass-tourism activities may have on nature and local communities, nature-based tourism is one of the fastest-growing sectors within the global tourism industry. Under the umbrella term of nature-based tourism, ecotourism is an approach to accommodate visitors searching for intrinsic environmental tourism. It is, therefore, focused on obtaining a healthy ecosystem, sustaining environmental benefits and protecting environmental assets (Isaacs, 2000:61).

Worldwide ecotourism is viewed as the knight in shining armour with a great quest to conquer, overcoming the tourism industry and all of its many challenges. This multipronged tourism type has been identified to promote conservation and scientific research in support of protecting the ecosystems, benefiting local communities, advocating for environmental awareness and informed travelling, while celebrating nature in an educative and enjoyable tourist experience (Honey, 2008:4). The primary focus of this chapter will be on understanding ecotourism in the context of other tourism types. The first section will focus on understanding tourism. Although tourism is inherently associated with numerous sectors of the world's economy it is rather complicated to pin down to one singular definition. Ecotourism is often confused with nature tourism. When understood properly the true value of ecotourism is unlocked. It strives to respect, and benefit protected areas as well as any surrounding community members (Honey, 2008:4). It is, therefore, crucial not to isolate tourism in a vacuum but rather to widen the lens and explore it holistically. Only once a fair understanding of the concept has been established, the sustainability of tourism can be addressed.

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The next section will discuss conventional mass tourism and alternative tourism activities. Not all tourism activities are "bad" for the environment. However, due to a globally competitive marketplace, an abundance of 'ideal' holiday packages and developments such as theme parks, holiday clubs or hotels in (once) pristine natural areas, the natural environment and native communities have taken an unintended socio-economic backseat. Alternative tourism aims to implement more nature-oriented tourism activities by keeping natural degradation to a minimum.

Attention will then shift to focus on and explore the concept of ecotourism holistically by analysing the primary characteristic and how it differentiates from standardised tourism activities. The term ecotourism emerged during the 1980s and has co-evolved alongside other related terms such as 'nature-based tourism', 'adventure tourism', 'trekking', '3s tourism', and 'sustainable tourism'. Some of these terms are incorrectly used as alternatives for ecotourism. The last section of this chapter will focus on how ecotourism relates to these other forms of tourism.

3.2 UNDERSTANDING TOURISM

Tourism is one of the world's leading industries and plays a vital role in the world economy. Consequently, it is intertwined with the socio-cultural, economic and environmental fabrics of life (Fennell, 2003:1). Tourism is, therefore, the bridge between various disciplines such as psychology, sociology, anthropology, geology and economics. Due to its rather complex nature, the concept of tourism is difficult to pin down to a singular definition. Any definition could run the risk of overestimating or underestimating the tourism industry. Simply stating that tourism refers to the movement of people from one point to another (and back) while making use of lodging and food services on their journey is not substantial.

To understand tourism holistically, it is crucial to make a distinction between two concepts — the *travellers* and the *tourists*. According to Boorstin (cited in Holden, 2008:2) the term *travellers* refers to conditions associated with work, trouble or torment and are linked to those undertaking a pilgrimage For a *tourist*, on the other hand, travelling has become more organised and is associated with packaged affairs.

The World Tourism Organisation (WTO) (cited in Cooper, 2008:11) defines tourism as: "the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for no more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes". This definition is rather flexible while still

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pointing out the essential nature of tourism by revering to the movement and stay of people in various destinations or places; the journey from one destination to the next including the activities taking place outside their everyday environment or place of residence or work; the intent of the movement being for a limited time only; and the short-lived visits at various destinations, not to take up permanent residence or employment (Cooper, 2008:11-12).

3.2.1 Tourism attractions

A rather key element of tourism lies in its attractions. According to Fyall and Wanhill (2008:309) attractions are regarded as the single most important reason to pursue leisure tourism Attractions differ in "sense of purpose" and are therefore often difficult to manage, especially in the environment of the public sector such as museums. These establishments must address the wishes of their wide range of stakeholders and visitor groups and on occasion attract national government in international marketing strategies.

Cases have been reported of attractions adding value and contributing towards the regeneration of a destination. Successful branding of such "flagship" destinations not only attracts more visitors but also creates the opportunity to address the needs of the residents, ultimately building towards more inclusive and attractive tourism destinations and activities (Fyall & Wanhill, 2008:309). However, when a popular tourist attraction is shared with a hosting community, it could result in an increase in traffic, littering and crowding. Managing tourist attractions is, therefore, a challenging activity with so many stakeholders to please (Fyall & Wanhill, 2008:310).

Although there are many ways to differentiate between tourism attractions, the earliest attempt was to distinguish between natural resources and artificial or "man-made" attractions and features (Fyall & Wanhill, 2008:310). Accordingly, the latter can be characterised as cultural (e.g. architecture, areological sites or historical landmarks), traditions (e.g. animated culture or religious events), entertainment (e.g. theme parks, cinemas, sports activities), and natural (e.g. nature reserves, flora, or fauna) (Fyall & Wanhill, 2008:311; Goeldner, cited in Fennell, 2003:2).

3.2.2 The sustainability of tourism

Tourism has the ability to develop and transform regions into completely different settings and is greatly praised for providing areas with long-term development. Unfortunately, in the same breath, tourism can quite easily create overwhelming ecological and social disturbances in the transformed regions (Fennell, 2003:4). As a tool to combat and prevent the uprooting nature of mass-tourism, the

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concept of sustainable tourism was introduced to the tourism sector. With the increase in transportation in the 1950s and 60s, the *mass-tourism-beast* has been transforming once raw natural areas into unauthentic resorts, designed to adhere to the tourism demand whilst competing for income in an increasingly global and competitive market (Vainikka, 2016:64; Fennell, 2003:4).

Sustainable development is a complex and rather contradicting concept. This is greatly due to a lack of understanding and global acceptance. According to the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED), development can only be characterised as *sustainable* if it "meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (WCED, 1987:8). This definition is based on the triangular idea of sustainability meaning sustainability can only be achieved when social, environmental and economic goals intersect. This model rests on the idea of integrating social, environmental and economic factors into planning, implementation, and decision-making, ensuring development serves the present and future generations (Muller, 2014).

Supporting this notion, Fletcher (2008:219) explores the ways in which each sphere of the triangular sustainability relationship challenges sustainable tourism:

- Economic aspects working against sustainable tourism: The tourism industry, like many others, is in competition with various other industries for production resources, ultimately resulting in price inflation by driving up the costs of land and labour. According to Fletcher (2008:219), the tourism industry is especially appealing to people from rural areas who have previously been employed by traditional industries, resulting in a decrease in their output levels. Scarce investment funds may be attracted to the tourism industry on the rapid return and foreign exchange inflows. In the long-term, this can lead to distorted allocation of resources and structural unemployment. However, this scenario may not always be the case for tourism development in industrialised areas. Rather it is more typical in less-developed countries or communities where the effects associated with the development of tourism can be economically traumatic (Fletcher, 2008:219).
- Environmental aspects working against sustainable tourism: Tourism is land competitive and, in many occasions, depleting the natural environment as it develops real estate. Consequently, tourism development can have severely disruptive effects on the surrounding biodiversity through extreme activities such as hunting, or less extreme like hiking or relaxing at the resort (Fletcher, 2008:219). However, the lesser glamorous tourism activities do not necessarily have a smaller environmental impact. Rather the introduction of bigger groups of tourists to already

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fragile environmental areas will naturally be accompanied by the tension between the natural environment and the tourism sphere (Fletcher, 2008:219).

- Socio-cultural aspects working against sustainable tourism: Tourists, whether they adapt to the local norm or not, will always have a socio-cultural impact on the local community (Fletcher, 2008:219). This is most likely due to natural curiosity where an empathetic and intrigued visitor wishes to observe the traditional customs. According to Fletcher (2009:219) this observation can trigger a commercialisation process that could ultimately change the motive and atmosphere of such activities.

  De Kadt (cited in Ånstrand, 2006:18), further explains the socio-cultural impact on the host by suggesting three categories of engagement: (1) the purchase of good and services from the host, (2) shared facilities by both the host and tourist such as transportation systems, beaches, restaurants etc.; and (3) gathering of hosts and tourists for a cultural exchange. Although the tourists, might not wish to cause any traumatic disturbance the hosts, their direct involvement in the host population's habitat and tourism activities could stimulate a shift in the host's behaviour (Fletcher, 2008:219; Ånstrand, 2006:18)

According to Allen (2001:154) the problem with the sustainable development ideology is that it does not sufficiently address the trade-offs and essential contradictions necessary to achieve economic, social and environmental goals. Applied to the tourism paradigm, this model is not completely accurate. The macro-economic strategies, social and environmental problems relating to each other are still too abstract. Accordingly, he argues it is important to note that sustainable development can only be achieved once all three spheres are considered — not necessarily in equal measure as some issues might be of bigger concern in a specific context (Allen, 2001:154).

Although sustainable development and sustainable tourism may share some areas of mutual concern, the latter has more specificities to consider. These specificities require careful analysation and investigation prior to selecting policies for sustainable tourism development. One of the main concerns that need to be addressed is whether sustainable tourism is a process set out to balance environmental, economic and community issues, or whether it is the community's responsibility to decide where the balance should lie (Hardy, Beeton & Pearson, 2002: 491).

Evidently, sustainable tourism is more complex and can quite simply not be viewed as an extension of sustainable development. Although it does draw close attention to the triangular factors, for sustainable tourism to be effective it should be more resilient and inclusive when considering the

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implications and needs of local communities (Hardy *et al.*, 2002: 491). Sustainable tourism is too multidimensional and needs to address long-term and future tourism infrastructure, the effectivity of natural resources, customer demands and lifestyles, economic benefits of tourism activities, neighbouring communities and level of influence (Tourism Concern, cited in Dumbraveanu, 2007:78).

Ultimately, it requires recognition, consciousness and responsibility. Tourists need to be aware of the resources used to produce tourism products and that they are limited and vulnerable (Fletcher, 2008:236). Tourists' desire to travel is still largely influenced by the pleasure factor rather than social and environmental consciousness. Consequently, to transform the tourism sector into a more sustainable and conscious-oriented action will require a paradigm-shift, stakeholder engagement and a bespoke sustainability strategy.

One way to address the sustainability-gap is by generating greater awareness and active participation, sharing lessons learned and more importantly translating impact into tangible and measurable economic marketplace values (Fletcher, 2008:236). For this to be effective, both tourists and businesses must take responsibility for their actions and have the necessary support from the legislative system enforcing accountability and penalties when applicable.

3.2.3 Alternative tourism versus mass tourism

A major issue of defining tourism is the common perception that it is purely concerned with recreation and relaxation. Although recreational tourism (i.e. mass tourism) is the most common form of tourism, other types do exist. These include leisure and recreation (which includes travel for holidays, sports, cultural events, and visiting friends or relatives) as the main type of tourism, but also include people travelling for business, education, religious or health purposes (Dividson, cited in Holden 2008:3).

During the 1950s and 1960s, the tourism industry experienced dramatic growth, mainly due to the advances in the transportation sectors accompanied by social breakthroughs such as paid leave, an increase in women in the workforce and flexible work hours ultimately resulting in more free-time for the middle classes and more money to spend (Buckley & Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996, cited in Hardy *et al.*, 2002:485; Löfgren, cited in Vainikka, 2016:64). This resulted in an increase in large-scale standardised packages to luxury tourism attractions, managed by tour operators and sold into the marketplace to thousands of consumers (Theng, Qiong & Tatar, 2015; Holden, 2008:6).

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Mass tourism manifests itself by an extreme concentration of tourisms in one place (Theng *et al*., 2015). It oftentimes takes the form of grand hotels or mega-resorts and is commonly developed by imported products, has little regard for local food products, and is owned by metropolitan interests (Fennell, 2003:4). Although these activities greatly support economic growth in the host country by creating employment and investment opportunities for entrepreneurs, it is not without its challenges. The seasonality negatively affects the in-and-out movement of paid positions depending on the touristic traffic. Likewise, the development of these destinations is too often associated with environmental degradation and commercialisation of natural areas leaving the local economies fragile and vulnerable (Theng *et al*., 2015; Fennell, 2003:4). Accordingly, Fennell (2003:4) describes mass tourism as "the beast" challenging modern tourism activities; a horrific creature dominating tourism activities within a region that is specifically designed and transformed to meet the expectations and demands of visitors without taking the natural ecology into account.

During the 1980s there was a growth in environmental consciousness leading to the rise of more social and ecological substitutes to mass tourism — i.e. alternative tourism. Alternative tourism can be interpreted in two ways. The first, alternative tourism as a more environmentally aware approach by concentrating on an unspoiled environment while taking the needs of the local people into account (Krippendorf, cited in Fennell 2003:4; Holden, 2008:232). The second, alternative tourism as types of tourism that are different from mass tourism in the spectrum, but not necessarily causing less damage to the environment or attempting to solve all the problems caused by tourism (Holden, 2008:232; Cooper, 2008:16). For this study, the focus was be on the former interpretation of alternative tourism.

Alternative tourism is an umbrella term covering a range of tourism strategies all of which diverge from conventional mass tourism. It includes all types of tourism activities with limited impact on the environment while contributing to the conservation and enhancement of the natural and cultural heritage, whilst advocating for economic activities in remote areas (Lantitsou, 2017:371).

During development, alternative tourism directs its focus primarily on the social and cultural resources of the specific areas (Fennell 2003:5). It can be characterised as small-scale locally-owned activities with limited environmental and social impacts and strong linkages to other sectors of the local economy. This results in reduced dependence on imports by channelling the majority of the tourists' economic expenditure to local communities. These activities empower the participation of the local people in decision-making processes while ensuring the pace of development and activities are not

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controlled by external influences but rather managed by the indigenous people (Holden, 2008:323; Fennell, 2003:5).

The relationship between ecotourism, alternative, mass, and sustainable tourism is conceptualised in figure 3.5, figure 3.6, and figure 3.7, respectively. A discussion on the relationship between each form of tourism to ecotourism will be discussed in section 3.5.

3.3 ECOTOURISM

Since the 1970s — the rise of the global environmental movements — more protected areas have been established worldwide than during all preceding periods. In 1992, about forty-eight thousand sites were established. This increased the global total to ±12.3 million square kilometres worldwide. Although the number of parks continued to increase, accounting for 17 million square kilometres and equalling to 11.5 per cent of the earth's total land surface, not all these parks are run and managed efficiently. Many are mere "paper parks", existing only in name and are faced with a severe lack of funds and outdated park management philosophies (Honey, 2008:13).

Due to the popular "preservation" conservation method of the 1960s that focussed on separating people and parks, there was little to no regard for the local people, especially in African countries. Park management used policing, fines, fences and firepower as tools to forcibly evict and keep local community members out. Local people received little or no benefits or economic value from parks and were restricted to increasingly degrading adjacent areas. The lack of good environmental governance resulted in poaching and the degradation of natural resources. As a tool to combat these unintended consequences and connect people (tourist and local community members) with nature, the notion of ecotourism was introduced (Honey, 2008:13).

Ecotourism refers to being engaged and in tune with nature. By linking tourism to natural rather than man-made attractions, ecotourism can be classified as alternative tourism and consequently rather hard to define as there is no finite consensus on the meaning of alternative tourism (Weaver, 2001a; Holden, 2008:232). One of the very first formal definitions of ecotourism was constructed by Ceballos-Lascuráin in 1987. He defines ecotourism as, "travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas with the specific objective of studying, admiring, and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural manifestation (both past and present) found in

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these areas" (cited in Weaver 2001a:5). This created a benchmark for many more definitions to follow, highlighting crucial elements such as education, tourism enjoyment, ecology and sustainability.

Cater (cited in Holden, 2008:323) illustrates the difficulty of defining ecotourism as the term is faced with disorientation. Although ecotourism is a form of alternative- and sustainable tourism, the latter concepts is already hard to define. Likewise, characterising it as *responsible* tourism suffers the same fate as the responsibility should be specified in a contexts specific matter such as environmental, or socio-cultural responsible. Hall and Kinnaird expand on Caters' idea by referring to ecotourism as a vehicle conserving and sustaining natural and cultural environments and its resources as being 'sustainable', 'green', 'soft', and 'alternative' forms of tourism (cited in Holden, 2008:234). However, this does cause for misinterpretation and could result in ecotourism becoming a victim of modern marketing schemes or so-called 'greenwashing' where the tag 'eco' is applied to almost anything and became synonymous with responsible consumerism (cited in Holden, 2008:234).

According to The International Ecotourism Society (TIES), ecotourism is defined as "responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment, sustains the well-being of the local people and involves interpretation and education" (The International Ecotourism Society (TIES), 2015). The education factor is greatly stressed and is all-inclusive for staff and guests — those travelling to the destination and not the local community.

Evidently, confusion exists around ecotourism and what it entails, which in turn, results in inconsistent implementation. After analysing all the definitions of ecotourism, the concept seems to have at least four predominant elements — *nature-based, environmentally educative, financial benefits for indigenous communities,* and *sustainably managed*. The last principle of *sustainability* covers ecological sustainability as well as the quality of tourism activities. Linking these five characteristics to those identified by scholars and institutions (Newsome, Moore & Downling, 2013); TIES (2015); Wight, cited in Holden (2008); Weaver (2001); and Isaacs (2000)) there seems to be a sense of familiarity as many of these are interdependent, interrelated and mutually reinforcing. Acknowledging the fact that ecotourism is fundamentally a nature-based offspring, descending from alternative tourism, there most definitely will be similarities echoed in its fundamental characteristics.

The researcher agrees with the five main ecotourism characteristics as discussed by Newsome *et al.* (2013:19-23). The first three elements (nature-based, ecologically sustainable and environmentally educative) are crucial for an activity or product to be considered ecotourism. The final two (locally

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beneficial and tourism satisfaction) are desirables for all forms of tourism. Accordingly, the researcher defines the five key building blocks to ecotourism for the purpose of this study as:

1. *Nature-based*: Ecotourism is wholeheartedly based on the natural environment. Therefore, it deals with its physical, cultural and biological features. Ecotourism primarily depends on and is based in natural environments and may include cultural elements where they occur in a natural setting (Newsome *et al.*, 2013:18). According to Fennell and Weaver (2005:374), the products produced by ecotourism are also nature-based and may fluctuate from a 'holistic' emphasis on an entire ecosystem to 'elemental' focuses on specific megafauna[3], megaflora[4], or megaliths[5] fundamentally motivated by consumer demands.

2. *Ecologically sustainable*: All ecotourism activities should be economically, socially and environmentally sustainable. Ecotourism is based within natural environments and is therefore fixed on the issue of ecological sustainability (Newsome *et al.*, 2013:19). Consequently, the million-dollar question is: how to ensure the successful development of ecotourism-products and capacity without disturbing the environment that maintains and fosters it?

   It is essential that the ecotourism activities do not cause any harm to the natural areas or resources it is exercised in. The ecotourism product should, therefore, be developed in an environmentally sound manner, resilient enough to ensure long-term benefits for the indigenous community, resources, and industry. The benefits may be conservation, scientific, social, cultural, or economic (Wight, cited in Holden, 2008:236). If ecological sustainability is not achieved, the areas will suffer great degradation leading to the point that tourism will no longer be attracted to it. The scale and size of the tourist group should consequently be strictly managed, allowing only a few tourists to visit a site at a time in order to minimise the impact.

3. *Environmentally educative*: A key characteristic of ecotourism is its ability to build environmental awareness. Environmental education is what differentiates ecotourism from other forms of nature-based tourism (Honey, 1999:22). According to Newsome *et al* (2013: 20), environmental education and interpretation are the two main ingredients in creating an enjoyable and meaningful tourism experience. Interpretation is not only the art of assisting in learning but even more so focusses on deepening the understanding of the message by turning

[3] Megafauna: large or relatively large animals found in a particular region or habitat, e.g. giant pandas, gorillas, elephants (Fennell & Weaver, 2005:374).

[4] Megaflora: plants of exceptional size, large enough to be seen by the naked eye, e.g. kremetart trees or rafflesia (Fennell & Weaver, 2005:374).

[5] Megaliths: describing stone structures set upright in the Earth dated from 5000 to 500 BC, e.g. volcanoes, mountain or caves (Fennell & Weaver, 2005:374).

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information to knowledge and ultimately action. Ecotourism, therefore, attracts tourists with a desire to interact with and learn from nature and to develop their awareness, knowledge and appreciation for nature. According to Crabtree (cited in Newsome *et al.*,2013:20), the essence of environmental education lies in enabling the "tourists [to] see the big picture regarding the environment" (Crabtree, by acknowledging the natural area's cultural values and the importance of resource management.

All parties (local communities, government, non-governmental organisations, industry and tourists) must continuously be educated throughout the eco-activities. Only by truly participating and acknowledging the intrinsic value of the resource, an 'outsider' can begin to build environmental and cultural awareness (Honey, 1999:22; Wight, cited in Holden, 2008:236; TIES, 2015). It is therefore essential that ecotourism guides are well trained, bilingual naturalist, and knowledgeable on the natural and cultural history, environmental interpretation, environmental ethics and principles and able to effectively communicate these to all parties involved (Honey, 1999:22).

4. *Locally beneficial:* This implies implementing a community-based approach to ecotourism activities that not only promote the local community members' quality of life but equally focus on the conservation of natural recourses (Scheyvens, 1999:246). Local communities should, therefore, be involved in the decision-making processes and product execution, as they play a vital role in providing knowledge, services, facilities and products. These ecotourism actions may add tremendous value to the tourist's experience. Ecotourism activities may lead to financial contributions, where an ecotour contributes to subsidising a conservation project or consists of practical help in the field, in which case the tourists are involved in environmental data collection and new research topics to be explored (Newsome *et al.*,2013:21; TIES, 2015; Honey, 1999:23).

   According to Drumm (cited in Newsome *et al.*, 2013:21), some local communities view ecotourism and their involvement in ecotourism actions "as an accessible development alternative", rather than selling their natural resources to the highest bidder. Ecotourism, therefore, enables them to improve their living conditions. By opening small-scaled locally owned activities to tourism not only generate financial benefits for both local people and private industries but also empower the indigenous community to manage the resources on their terms and recognise the limits of supply-oriented management. Ultimately this could close the loop on and channel the majority of the tourists' economic expenditure to the local community (Wight, cited in Holden, 2008:236; TIES, 2015).

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5. *Tourist satisfaction*: As with the entire tourism industry, the satisfaction of ecotourists' experience greatly influences and threatens the ecotourism product's long-term viability. Although ecotourism is primarily concerned with the conservation and protection of the natural environment and the natural resources its products are based on, the ecotourism experience should be a positive one for both the tourist and the host. Exceeding the tourist's expectations will be a bonus to the experience (Newsome *et al.,*2013:23; Wight, cited in Holden, 2008:236; TIES, 2015).

Taking all ecotourism literature into consideration and based on the latter defined concepts, the researcher draws the following concluding definition of ecotourism: *Ecotourism is fundamentally an ecologically sustainably, nature-based form of tourism. It is ethically managed by low-impact and good resource-management, promotes cultural awareness and includes environmental education (for all participating parties) where one experience and learn about nature and the native culture. All activities are conservation-oriented with a primary focus on contributing and adding value to the quality of the community's life (adapted from Fennell, 2003:25; Scheyvens 1999:246; Buckley, 2004).*

3.4 ECOTOURISM IN THE CONTEXT OF OTHER TOURISM TYPES

In order to gain a holistic understanding of ecotourism, it is essential to view it in context and in relation to other forms of tourism. The purpose of this section is to explore those various perspectives and the relationship between ecotourism and other twenty-first-century concepts such as *sustainability* and *alternative tourism*.

3.4.1 Ecotourism and nature-based tourism

Ecotourism is often used as a synonym for 'nature-based, 'nature-oriented' or 'nature' tourism (Weaver, 2001b:73). This inaccuracy was fostered by the contributing factor that both relate to activities taking place within relatively unspoiled natural environments. The rather big distinction between ecotourism and nature-based tourism is that the former is bound to a particular set of sustainability principles and characteristics (as described in the previous section). In contrast, nature-based tourism quite simply refers to travel activities utilising the natural resources of an area (Weaver, 2001b:74).

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By linking tourism to natural rather than man-made attractions, ecotourism is a classification of nature-based tourism. Nature-based tourism is, therefore, the umbrella term used for all forms of tourism activities utilising natural resources in an undeveloped form. Accordingly, it includes Sea, Sand and Sun (3S) tourism, mass tourism, adventure tourism and trekking, as well as ecotourism (Weaver, 2001b:74). Ecotourism does, however, differentiates from the other forms of nature-based tourism by being inherently sustainable (not all forms of nature-based tourism are sustainable), and the interaction that exists between the tourist and the attraction (i.e. locally beneficial and educational for all parties).

Although ecotourism is a subset of nature-based tourism, according to Weaver (2001b:74), ecotourism is not entirely incorporated under this category, as some past and present cultural attractions may constitute a secondary component of ecotourism. This point is illustrated in figure 3.1. Not all nature-based activities are completely sustainable and in line with ecotourism principles. Due to this interconnectedness, defining nature-based tourism and hence ecotourism is rather complex. A decision may ultimately result in any of these concepts to have an arbitrary component (Blamey, cited in Weaver, 2001a:8).

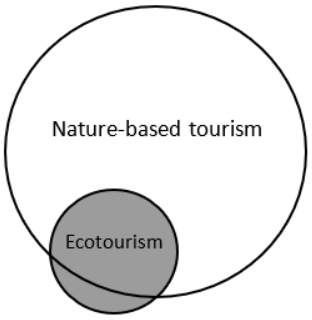

Figure 3. 1: Nature-based tourism and ecotourism (Weaver, 2001b:74)

3.4.2 Adventure tourism

As with nature-based tourism, adventure tourism is also commonly interchangeably used with ecotourism, and once again this should not be the case. Although both are associated with natural environments, it is not confined to nature-based venues. The differentiation between the two forms can quite simply be grounded on the type of activities pursued (Fennell, 2003:29). More so, adventure tourism is divergent by emphasising these three factors:

- an element of *risk* during the tourism experiences
- a higher level of *physical exaltation* by the participant
- the need for specialised *skills* to facilitate successful participation (Weaver, 2001b:74; Fennell, 2003:29).

Activities may include white-water rafting, wilderness hiking, sky-diving, sea-kayaking, caving, orienteering, mountain climbing, diving, hang-gliding, as well as less nature-based activities that involve interaction with remote cultures, or situations involving action (Sung *et al.,* cited in Weaver, 2001b:75). Clearly, the type of interaction these activities have with the natural environment differs

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from that of ecotourism. Ecotourism predominantly emphasises an educative and appreciative interaction with nature, while adventure tourism desires to access a setting that simulates risk and physical exertion.

However, this does not eliminate adventure activities from being educative and appreciative. There are most definitely adventure tourists who are interested in these qualities, as there are certainly ecotourists who are eager to undertake some risk to experience a particular nature attraction. This partial overlap, as illustrated by figure 3.2, is rather small as it only includes the 'harder' and more dedicated forms of ecotourism, which accounts for a limited range of ecotourism activities. If 'soft' adventure tourism was allowed — including just about any interaction with the natural environment — the overlap would be much bigger (Canadian Tourism Commission, cited in Weaver, 2001b:75).

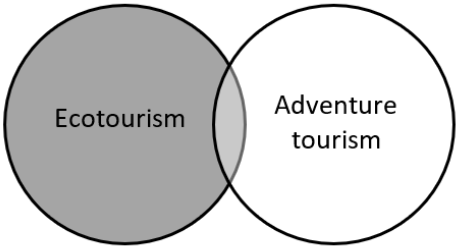

Figure 3.2: Adventure tourism and ecotourism (Weaver, 2001b:75)

3.4.3 Trekking

Trekking is a tourism activity relating to exploring mountainous venues such as the Himalayas and Mount Kilimanjaro. A trek is an adventure experience combining distance hiking and visiting local villages while appreciating natural sceneries. Trekking can, therefore, be seen as a tourism activity incorporating adventure tourism, cultural tourism and ecotourism, and is also referred to as ACE tourism, as exemplified in figure 3.3.

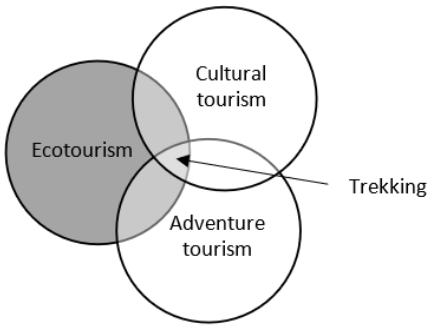

Figure 3.3: Trekking and ecotourism (Weaver, 2001b:76).

Although ecotourism is a very distinct tourism type and set in its own way, Fennell (1999) acknowledges the ACE combination (cited in Weaver 2001b:75). Its popularity is based on two main factors: (1) in many cases tourists find it merely impossible to distinguish between the three components; and (2) consumers see this as a rather diversified and holistic tourism experience.

3.4.4 The 3S tourism

The 3S tourism referring to 'sea, sand and sun' is a form of nature-based tourism. It emphasises pleasure-seeking activities and is most commonly affiliated with mass-based tourism. It is rarely linked

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to ecotourism and therefore usually positioned on the opposite end of the tourism spectrum in terms of its motivation, impact and scale (Weaver, 2001b:76).

However, there is a small cluster of activities where these two rather diverse tourism types overlap. These activities include scuba diving, snorkelling, submarine tours and other types of marine observation (Weaver, 2001b:76). If these activities are conducted sustainably (ecologically, financially, qualitatively), and with the purpose to actively observe, it can be accepted by the definitions of ecotourism. This does not mean that any form of marine observation (passive viewing of marine fauna and flora) is necessarily a form of ecotourism. Rather, there is no inherent ground to exclude these 3S activities from ecotourism, if conducted as stipulated above.

The overlap between 3S tourism and ecotourism is showcased in figure 3.4. Diving-activities are growing quickly and greatly contributing toward tourism activities, and to some extent ecotourism (Tabata, cited in Weaver, 2001b:76). Therefore, the overlap between the two spheres is not incidental. Subsequently, it may cause a total reassessment of the overall magnitude of ecotourism, its competition, and its importance within destinations that are not usually associated with this sector (Weaver, 2001b:76).

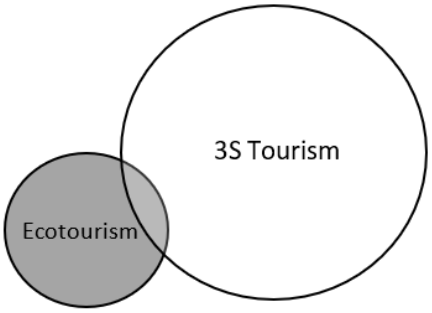

Figure 3.4: 3S tourism and ecotourism (Weaver, 2001b:76).

3.4.5 Mass and alternative tourism

The connection between alternative and ecotourism cannot take place without introducing mass tourism. Oftentimes, the relationship between mass and alternative tourism is seen as the end of two spectrum and therefore, both will be discussed in this section (Cooper, 2008:16). In order to truly understand the progression of tourism literature, it would be helpful to take a step back in time.

Since the 1960s the development of tourism boomed. This was mostly due to a dramatic increase in international accessibility by the opening of airline routes between the United States and Europe as well as the launch of jet engines (Honey, 1999:8). It was not until the mid-80s, triggered by overcrowdedness, unpleasant conditions and the dramatic loss of pristine ecological sites to house a new destination park, that the environmental movement met the tourism sphere (Honey, 1999:11). This marked the birth of the ‘alternative tourism’ — an approach being alternative to mass tourism (Holden, 2008:232).

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Consequently, the relationship between mass tourism and alternative tourism became rather bipolar, with alternative tourism labelled as the 'good' option and mass tourism as the 'bad' option (Weaver, 2001b:77). This relationship is illustrated in figure 3.5. The two types of tourism are quite independent of one another with ecotourism subsumed under alternative tourism, as discussed earlier in this chapter.

In contrast to figure 3.5, Weaver (2001b:77) argues that ideal mass tourism and alternative tourism are "merely the poles of a continuum". The movement from one to another is therefore not restricted by concrete boundaries (as indicated by figure 3.5), but rather a subtle transition. He illiterates this argument by means of a single circle representing the tourism spectrum in figure 3.6. Within the circle, alternative tourism is represented as a rather small component that gradually gives way to large-scale tourism. The dotted line represents the transition zone rather than a concrete boundary between the two tourism types. Ecotourism is positioned in such a way that it overlaps alternative and mass tourism components, enabling ecotourists to undertake 'softer' forms of ecotourism that are less sustainable, alternative and more commercialised, e.g. a lone wilderness hiker ('hard' ecotourism) spending time at a local wilderness interpretation centre ('soft' ecotourism) (Weaver, 2001b:79).

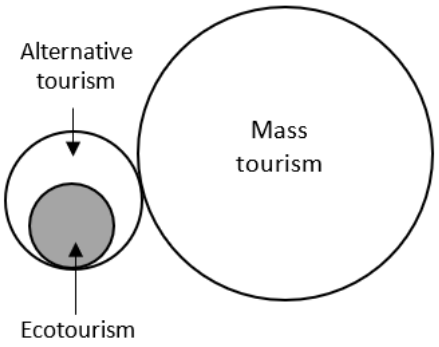

Figure 3. 5: Alternative tourism and ecotourism: conventional approach (Weaver, 2001b:77).

The connection between ecotourism and mass tourism is rather controversial and is not likely to be supported by ecotourism stakeholders. A counterargument mentions that the influence of mass tourism over ecotourism is likely to be much greater than the reverse situation, providing it with the opportunity to appropriate ecotourism for its own purpose. This assumption will lead to ecotourism becoming unstainable and consequently, ecotourism will not become established on the mass tourism side of the spectrum.

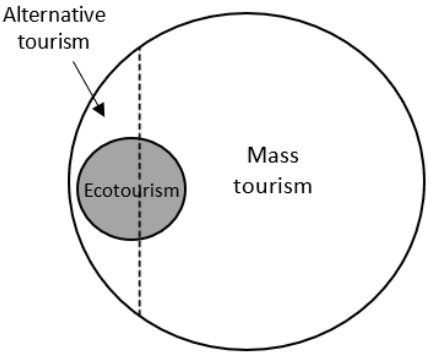

Figure 3. 6: Alternative tourism, mass tourism and ecotourism: emergent approach (Weaver, 2001:80)

3.4.6 Sustainable tourism

As the concept of sustainable tourism was only introduced in literature during the late 1980s, it is almost as argumentative as that of ecotourism or alternative tourism. Since sustainability was formally

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defined in the Brundtland Report[6] in 1987, the popular term was broadly applied to the tourism actor leading to the conclusion that sustainable tourism should not threaten the economic, cultural or environmental integrity of a destination in the long run (Weaver, 2001b:80). However, as previously mentioned, sustainable tourism simply cannot be an extension of the Brundtland Report's definition. Rather, it requires more resilience, inclusivity and consideration for the local communities (Fennell 2003:11). Since no one is likely to disagree in principle with the goals of sustainable tourism, it was seen as the 'great imperative' of the global tourism sector. Although alternative tourism does tend to be more sustainably oriented than mass tourism, they are not synonyms. Ecotourism, on the other hand, is a descendant of alternative tourism and is definitely sustainably based (Weaver, 2001b:80).

The size of the tourism operation is not always the deciding sustainability factor. If they are well managed (large-scale or small-scale) it can be sustainable. Accordingly, Weaver (2001b:80) argues that the core principle of ecotourism can be retained when extended into the mass tourism area. Ecotourism remains a subset of sustainable tourism since sustainability is one of the core eco-tourism criteria, as illustrated in figure 3.7. The figure also indicates that alternative tourism is at present more likely than mass tourism to be sustainable.

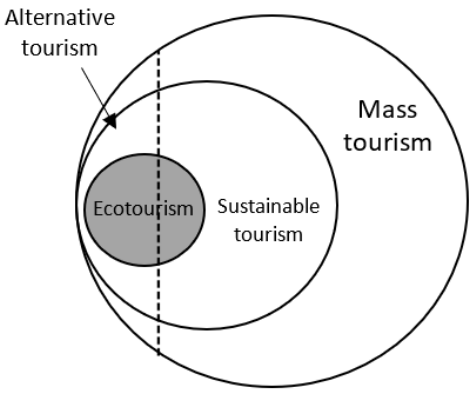

Figure 3. 7: Sustainable tourism and ecotourism

3.5 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this chapter aimed to provide the reader with an overview of tourism, and more specifically ecotourism. Defining tourism is rather complex as it is intertwined with many disciplines of life, such as psychology, sociology, anthropology, geology and economics. Since the 1980s the globe is becoming increasingly environmentally conscious, confronting tourism with new millennial buzzwords such as *sustainability*, *alternative tourism*, and *ecotourism*. These concepts are relatively new to the tourism literature and consequently, it is rather hard to formulate definitions accepted by all. These concepts are mutually reinforcing and often overlap, causing some confusion when compared to one another.

[6] **Brundtland Report**, also called Our Common Future, publication released in **1987** by the World **Commission** on Environment and Development (WCED) that introduced the concept of sustainable development and described how it could be achieved.

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The Brundtland Report (1987) adequately defined the concept of *sustainability* in 1987 by relating it to the environmental, social and economic contexts. However, it cannot simply apply as an extension of the tourism paradigm. Rather it requires answering the question as to where the balance of sustainability lies. Consequently, the chapter showcased that sustainable tourism is more than a triangular balance act.

This chapter outlined the key characteristics of ecotourism being tourism activities that are fundamentally nature-based, environmental educative, ecologically sustainable, and beneficial for local communities and satisfying to the tourists. Although each tourism type has its own principles to uphold, they do overlap at times. The relationships that exist between ecotourism and other types of tourism were discussed and illustrated in figures, 3.1 to 3.7.

The following chapter will be orientated towards the institutional and policy framework for tourism. It will explore the policy, frameworks, legislation and other documents guiding tourism development and good environmental governance within the Cederberg Complex.

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CHAPTER 4: THE POLICY AND REGULATORY FRAMEWORK GUIDING ECOTOURISM AND GOOD GOVERNANCE IN THE CEDERBERG COMPLEX

4.1 INTRODUCTION

For this study, good environmental governance is essential to ensure that ecotourism is governed ethically and effectively. To deepen the understanding and application of good environmental governance and ecotourism development within the Cederberg Complex, this chapter will explore the various applicable legislations, policies and frameworks on a national as well as local scale.

To lay the legislative foundation and set the regulatory context for the study, the environmental and tourism legislation should first be explored. The study is predominantly concerned with good governance or collaborative governance. Accordingly, the researcher consulted applicable legislative documents to further unpack the meaning and application of these concepts in the South African context with the purpose to assess if the policy and institutional framework facilitates and enables collaborative environmental governance (and by implication good governance) or hinders it. This was executed by consulting second-hand empirical data – various legislative frameworks, acts and policies. Thus, this chapter will begin by briefly explaining the context of the South African Constitution (RSA, 1996), followed by the National Environmental Management Act (107 of 1998) (RSA, 1998a), the National Tourism Act (3 of 2014) (RSA, 2014), as well as the Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act (13 of 2005) (RSA, 2005).

The focus will then shift towards the Cederberg Complex an area that covers approximately 79 935 hectares consisting of the Cederberg Wilderness, Matjies Rivier Nature Reserve and Hexberg State Forest. All activities falling within the Cederberg Complex and governed by CapeNature is governed by a management plan. Consequently, the Protected Areas Act's (57 of 2013) (RSA, 2013) application will be discussed. Furthermore, as the area falls within the boundaries of both the Cederberg Local Municipality and the West Coast District Municipality (WCDM), the Integrated Development Plans (IDP) and Spatial Development Frameworks (SDF) of both municipalities will be explored in terms of ecotourism and good governance.

The Cederberg Complex is governed by CapeNature, an active organisation focussed on promoting conservation in the Western Cape. The Western Cape's Department of Environmental Affairs and

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Development Planning (DEA&DP) as well the Western Cape Conservation Board's (CapeNature) organisational and legislative obligations will also be explored.

4.2. LEGISLATIVE APPLICATION

Environmental regulation and protection are relatively new concepts in South African law. Since the fall of Apartheid in 1994, the legislative, policy and institutional frameworks regarding environmental management in the Republic of South Africa had undergone tremendous transformation, particularly by enhancing the Bill of Rights in the 1996 Constitution (RSA, 1996).

Legislation forms the basis for environmental regulation in South Africa. Although national legislation is all-encompassing, environmental law is supported by various provincial and local regulatory policies and frameworks advocating for environmental protection (Van der Linde, 2009:20). The Constitution (RSA, 1996) is the most important law and sets the tone for all other legislation, policies and frameworks guiding activities accordingly. In order to understand the specifics guided by the Cederberg Complex, the Constitutional context should first be unpacked. Thus, following the application of the Constitution (RSA, 1996), the National Environmental Management Act (107 of 1998) (RSA, 1998a), the Tourism Act (3 of 2014) (RSA, 2014), and Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act (13 of 2005) (RSA, 2005) will be discussed.

4.2.1. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996)

The Constitution is South Africa's supreme law. Since 1994, South Africa's governance system has dramatically transformed at national, provincial and local government spheres. The Constitution is ruled by a rights-based approach framed by good governance principles effectively implemented and executed through accountability and transparency. These fundamental principles are echoed in Chapter four of the Constitution and are considered to be significant values for the South African society (Rossouw & Wiseman, 2004:132; RSA, 1996).

4.2.1.1. Chapter 2: The Bill of Rights

The adoption of the new Constitution was instrumental in creating a more coordinated and integrated approach to accept environmental rights and justice in the environmental policy arena as documented in the Bill of Rights. Along with various other once skewed topics, Chapter two (the Bill of Rights) houses environmental rights (section 24), rights to life (section 11); property (section 25); social security, water, food and health care (section 27); access to information (section 32), equity (section

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9), privacy (section 14), and freedom of religion (section 15) (Rossouw & Wiseman, 2004: 132; RSA, 1996).

Section 24 of the Bill of Rights (Chapter two of the Constitution) stipulates that each citizen has the right:

(a) to an environment that is not harmful to their health or well-being; and

(b) to have the environment protected, for the benefit of present and future generations, through reasonable legislative and other measures that –

i. prevent pollution and ecological degradation

ii. promote conservation; and

iii. secure ecologically sustainable development and use of natural resources while promoting justifiable economic and social development (RSA, 1996, section24).

4.2.1.2. Chapter 3: Co-operative Government

Chapter three of the Constitution (RSA, 1996, section 41) calls for collaboration and states that all organs of state within each sphere of government must adhere to the principles of cooperative governance. The Constitution calls for collaboration amongst all organ of state and across the three spheres of government. It described the three spheres as being "distinctive, interdependent and interrelated" and accordingly they are required to:

(a) preserve the peace, national unity and the indivisibility of the Republic;

(b) secure the well-being of the people of the Republic;

(c) provide effective, transparent, accountable and coherent government for the Republic as a whole;

(d) be loyal to the Constitution, the Republic and its people;

(e) respect the constitutional status, institutions, power and functions of government in the other spheres;

(f) not assume any power or function except those conferred on them in term of the Constitution;

(g) exercise their power and perform their functions in a manner that does not encroach on the geographical, functional or institutional integrity of government in another sphere; and

(h) co-operate with one another in mutual trust and good faith by –

iv. foster friendly relations;

v. assisting and supporting one another;

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vi. informing one another of, and consulting one another on, matters of common interest;
vii. co-ordinating their actions and legislation with one another;
viii. adhering to agreed procedures; and
ix. avoiding legal proceedings against one another (RSA, 1996, section 41).

Section 41 (1), identifies the need for the intergovernmental system underpinned good governance principles (as explored in chapter 2). Accordingly, it identifies the need for effectivity, accountability and transparency (section 41 (1) (c)), as well as mutual support (section 41 (1) (h)) (RSA, 1996). It is, therefore, important for cooperative governance relations to strive for continuous improvement across all spheres of government and stakeholders, contributing directly and indirectly to attain the vision and objectives set out for the Cederberg Complex. The same applies to regional planning and initiatives within the province (CapeNature, 2012:105).

4.2.2. The National Environmental Management Act (107 of 1998)

South Africa's Constitutional commitment toward environmental protection and sustainable development is fleshed out in the National Environmental Management Act (107 of 1998) (RSA, 1998a) hereafter referred to as NEMA. The Act serves as a vehicle for integrated environmental management, as well as the protection of the environment in a coordinated and sustainable manner (Van der Linde, 2009:194). It allows for the adoption of complementary subsidiary and sectoral laws in order to specifically protect biodiversity, water resource management, protected areas, pollution and waste management (Van der Linde, 2009:194; RSA, 1998a). Therefore, NEMA serves as an umbrella legislation supporting cooperative governance amongst the organs of state as well as governmental spheres.

NEMA is based on a four-pillar system. The first pillar aims to ensure comprehensive environmental decision-making by applying the national environment principles as outlined in section 2 of NEMA (RSA, 1998a: 12; Van der Linde, 2009:197). The second pillar supports cooperative governance procedures by establishing the Committee for Environmental Co-ordination, as well as supporting relevant organs of the state to prepare Environmental Implementation Plans (EIPs) and Environmental Management Plans (EMPs). The third pillar calls for active citizenship and public participation to ensure good environmental governance. This is executed by protecting whistleblowers, ensuring access to environmental information, establishing National Environmental Advisory Forums, and honouring Environmental Management Co-operation Agreements (Van der Linde, 2009:198; RSA,

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1998a). The fourth and final pillar is aligned with the Constitution's Bill of Rights. It advocates for environmental rights to be respected, protected, promoted and fulfilled.

4.2.2.1 Chapter 1: National Environmental Management Principles

The National Environmental Management Principles captured in Chapter 1 of the NEMA are fundamental to ensure good environmental management in South Africa. These principles are key for sound decision-making, especially in complex cases as with the protection and management of the environment and are therefore implemented throughout all state organs. As such, they serve as a guide to the interpretation, administration, and implementation of NEMA and any other environmental legislation (Van der Linde, 2009: 198; RSA, 1998a).

4.2.2.2 Chapter 8: Environmental Management Co-operation Agreements

Chapter 8, section 35 of the Act, call for collaboration. It states that the development of environmental management co-operation agreement (EMCA) may be entered into between government (represented by the Department of Environmental Affairs), civil society (individuals, organisations or sectors), or community guided by the NEMA principles (RSA, 1998a; Farina, 2001:12).

Accordingly, as stated by section 35 (2), and environmental management co-operation agreement must-

(a) Only be entered into with the agreement of-
   i. every organ of state which has jurisdiction over any activity to which such environmental management co-operation agreement relates;
   ii. the Minister and the MEC concerned;

(b) only be entered onto after compliance with such procedures for public participation as may be prescribed by the Minister; and

(c) comply with such regulation as may be prescribed under section 45 (RSA, 1998a: section 35).

The co-operation agreements may be undertaken by the individual or communities concerned with the protection and improvement of the environment and accompanied by a set of metrisable targets to ensure monitoring and evaluation. The form of collaboration is open to interpretation and may result in formalised matter allowing for non-compliant agreements and penalties in not adhering to set guidelines (RSA, 1998a: section 35). However, as stated by section 45 of the Act, the Minister may alter the co-operation agreement regulations to include participation agreements and state the

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duration of such agreements; set out general conditions, prohibitions and reporting structures; and include monitoring and inspection protocols (RSA, 1998a: section 45).

4.2.3. National Tourism Act (3 of 2014)

As this study is primarily focussed on tourism development, the National Tourism Act (3 of 2014) (RSA, 2014) will form a cornerstone to the implementation and management of such activities within the Cederberg Complex. Since 1994's first democratic election, South Africa's tourism industry has grown quite significantly. This Act (RSA, 1993) aims to promote sustainable tourism development for the benefit of South African citizens on a social, economic and environmental level.

The National Tourism Act (3 of 2014) promotes sustainable tourism development for the benefits of all visitors — nationally or internationally (RSA, 2014:1). As stipulated by Section 2 (1) (d-e), the Act aims to promote the development of tourism and related sector services and the enhance cooperation and coordination amongst all governmental spheres (RSA, 2014:8). Subsection 2 clearly emphasises the need for responsible tourism and defines it as tourism which:

(a) seeks to avoid negative economic, environmental and social impacts;
(b) generates greater economic benefit for local people, enhances the well-being of the host communities and improves working condition and access to the tourism sector;
(c) involves local people in decisions that affect their lives, makes positive contributions to the conservation of natural and cultural heritage and the maintenance of the world's diversity;
(d) provides enjoyable experiences for tourists through meaningful connections with local people and a greater understanding of local cultural and social and environmental issues;
(e) provides access for physically challenged people; and
(f) is culturally sensitive, engenders respect between tourists and hosts, and builds local pride and confidence (RSA, 2014: 8).

4.2.4. Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act (13 of 2005)

The Act aims to establish a framework to advance and facilitate intergovernmental relations amongst all three spheres of government, as set out in Chapter 3 of the Constitution. It, therefore, includes the correct protocol to deal with and settle disputes (RSA, 2005:12). Accordingly, the Act facilitates coordination and the implementation of policy and legislation including –

(a) coherent government;
(b) effective provision of services;
(c) monitoring implementation of policies and legislation;

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(d) and realisation of national priorities (RSA, 2005:12)

Furthermore, the Act calls for collaborative governance and action in Section 5 by encouraging consultation (adhering to the formal procedures should it be required); co-ordinating policy or legislative implementation actions; abstaining from duplicating any jurisdictional contest; planning to consult, co-operate and share information with other organs of state, and promptly respond to such requests in with sufficient institutional capacity; and to participate in intergovernmental structures of which they are members as well as to settle intergovernmental disputes (RSA, 2005:12).

In summary, the Act serves as a framework and guideline for organs of state to co-ordinate and participate in governance activities. To intervene when necessary and to better serve the nation in a participatory and collaborative approach guided by good governance principles.

4.3. CEDERBERG COMPLEX MANAGEMENT PLAN 2019-2029

Since 2018, the Cederberg Nature Reserve Complex, comprising of the Cederberg Wilderness, Matjiesrivier Nature Reserve, and Hexberg State Forest (see Addendum A for a map on the area), was renamed to the Cederberg Complex. This change was fully integrated into the newly released management plan (CapeNature, 2019b). As this study was initiated prior to the release of the 2019 Management Plan, both were consulted.

The purpose of the management plan is to clearly define goals and activities dedicated to the protection and sustainable use of the natural, scenic and heritage resources over a five-year and ten-year period (CapeNature, 2012:15; CapeNature, 2019b:vii). In practical terms, the management plan must house the requirements for the effective management of the Cederberg Complex. It should, therefore, adequately address the lack of human capacity and financial resources to implement and ultimately achieve the prescribed objectives and activities (CapeNature, 2019b:21).

As set out in Section 38 (1) of the National Environmental Management: Protected Areas Act (57 of 2003) (RSA, 2003a), hereafter referred to as NEM:PAA, protected areas are to be managed by a “suitable person, organisation or organ of state” (RSA, 2014:30). CapeNature is appointed as the managing authority of the Cederberg Complex, and as such, mandated by law (section 39 (3)(4)), CapeNature consulted various stakeholders including municipalities, other organs of state, and

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interested parties within the surrounding area when preparing the management plan (RSA, 2003a:32; CapeNature, 2019b:27).

Under section 41 of the NEM:PAA the plan is obligated to include:

(a) the terms and conditions of any applicable biodiversity management plan;
(b) a coordinated policy framework;
(c) such planning measures, controls and performance criteria as may be prescribed;
(d) a programme for the implementation of the plan and its costing;
(e) procedures for public participation, including participation by the owner (if applicable), any local community or other interested parties;
(f) where appropriate, the implementation of community-based natural resource management; and
(g) a zoning of the area indicating what activities may take place in different sections of the area, and the conservation objectives of those areas (RSA, 2003a:32).

Although it is not required, it will be advantageous for management to include: potential economic development opportunities of neighbouring areas; the expansion of knowledge and capacity building; co-management agreements of resources (be it human, administration or financial); and/or any other relevant matters (section 41 (3)) (RSA, 2003a:32). In executing the management plan, co-management is encouraged on the precondition that it adds value to the area's cultural heritage resources, creating and integrating a harmonised setting while consistently adhering to the other provisions listed in the Act (section 42). However, co-management should not result in "fragmentation or duplication of management functions" (RSA, 2003a:34). If necessary, the Minister or a member of the executive council may cancel the co-management agreement.

Since the turn of the South African governing regime, the policies and laws regulating protected areas have become increasingly complex. This is largely due to the multifaceted array of economic, social, constitutional and transnational considerations (Strydom, 2009:970). It is, therefore, crucial for protected areas to collaborate with other relevant stakeholders to not only manage the protected areas sustainably but to balance the attention of socio-economic and scientific interest groups while effectively enforcing environmental standards.

The Cederberg Complex's Management Plan lists strategic objectives to prioritise in order to achieve its goals. For this reason, it should include a timeframe (ranging over a financial year – 1 April to 31

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March) in the Strategic Implementation Framework, before being signed off by the Provincial Minister of Environmental Affairs and Development Planning (hereafter referred to as DEA&DP). The Cederberg Complex's Management Plan is limited by the reserve's actual or potential performance capability to ensure that the plan is achievable and sustainable (CapeNature, 2012:15).

The management plan follows the guiding principles set out by the NEM:PAA section 17 as well as the CapeNature values by applying the human-centred implementation of the *Batho Pele* principles along with other relevant international treaties and conventions, national and provincial legislation and policy agreements (CapeNature, 2012:2; CapeNature, 2019b:31). The management plan should, therefore, aim to place the needs of the people at the forefront, and serve their physical and psychological development and cultural and social interest equitably.

The plan intends to add value and continuity by initiating clear management objectives, scheduling actions and providing guidelines to effectively execute the management approach. The ten-year management plan developed clear objectives designed for the protection and sustainable use of its natural resources and overall good governance of the Cederberg Complex. Consequently, all activities taking place within the Cederberg Complex must obey the Constitution (RSA, 1996), the Western Cape Nature Conservation Board Act (15 of 1996), and the Western Cape Nature Conservation Laws Act (3 of 2000). The Management Plan is guided by Section 2 of the NEMA (107 of 1998) (RSA, 1998a) and Section 17 of the NEM:PAA (5 of 2003a), also referred to as the NEMA principles.

4.4 LOCAL MUNICIPAL BY-LAWS AND PLANS

It is the duty and responsibility of municipalities to not only follow all relevant provincial and national frameworks and legislation to protect and manage their respective communities well, but also to prepare and implement their own plans, programmes and strategies to foster growth and development in their juridical area. As instructed by Sections 25 and 26 of the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act (32 of 2000) (RSA, 2000:24), all municipalities (local, district and metropolitan) must undergo the integrated development planning process in order to produce an Integrated Development Plan (hereafter referred to as IDP). Further, as stated by the Local Government: Municipal Finance Management Act (LG:MFMA) (56 of 2003) (RSA, 2003b:38), the IDPs should be accompanied by a municipal budget to ensure good governance and monitor its performance.

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The IDP essentially contains the municipalities' responsibilities and how they wish to improve the quality of life for each resident by addressing their socio-economic, environmental, and developmental needs. A core component of the IDP is to include the Spatial Development Framework (hereafter referred to as SDF) — a basic guideline focussing on the land use management system of the municipality (RSA, 2000:38).

It is crucial for local municipalities to consult other stakeholders during the development of their IDP and SDF. For the process to be effective and as governed by law (section 39 (3)(4)) of NEM:PAA), all stakeholders within the region as well as those whom could potentially impact and/or be impacted by the development and other changes are encouraged to attend these public meetings (RSA, 2003a:32). All governmental departments working within the municipal boundaries must reference the IDP and comply with it. Municipalities must fully integrate their IDP and SDF tools in the pursuit of addressing social-, economic- and environmental issues and development (CapeNature, 2019b:48). These two documents are a municipality's leading records, advocating for sustainable development and ensuring biodiversity priorities are fully incorporated into the planning process.

Taking the size of the Cederberg Complex into account, it falls within the boundaries of two municipalities. Accordingly, the Cederberg Complex is mandated to comply with more than one set of IDPs and SDFs set out by the West Coast District Municipality (WCDM) as well as the Cederberg Local Municipality. The complete list of the WCDM and Cederberg Local Municipality's strategic goals as (listed in their SDFs and IDPs) as well as CapeNature's strategic goals for the Cederberg Complex are captured in Addendum B. Due to their collaborative governance approach to serve the Cederberg Complex, these goals are mutually reinforcing and in support of one another.

4.4.1 Integrated Developmental Plan

An IDP guides economic, social, physical and other dimensions of an area (Van Wyk, 2016:54). In South Africa an IDP is a strategic document governed by the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act (32 of 2000) (RSA, 2000) involving a given municipality and its citizens to implement the best developmental practises in their community. According to the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act (RSA, 2000), a municipality is required to undertake and prepare an Integrated IDP every five years directly linked to the term of office for local councillors to ensure they achieve their constitutional mandates[7] (CapeNature, 2019b:48; RSA, 2000:36; Cederberg Local Municipality, 2017a:16).

[7] See Section 152 and 153 of the Constitution (RSA, 1996)

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Thought to be the principle strategic instrument of a municipality, the IDP coordinates the work of local and other governmental spheres plotting a municipality's long-term development by addressing infrastructure, service delivery and other transformational needs (RSA, 2000:25; CapeNature, 2019b:48). It not only accounts for the current condition, constraints and available resources, but also the budget priorities set aside. As such, the IDP is responsible to address how the environment will be managed and protected. A vital component of the IDP is the SDF — the council's operational strategies and relevant disaster management plans (CapeNature, 2019b:48). The IDP should, therefore, be robust. Not only to shape the developmental pathway for the future area but doing so holistically by taking all socio-economic, environmental and physical aspects and potential negative effects into account (Van Wyk, 2016:54).

4.4.1.1. West Coast District Municipality's Integrated Development Plan (2017-2022)

The West Coast District Municipality (WCDM) (2017:17) (hereafter referred to as the WCDM) consists of five local municipalities, namely Matzikama in the north, Cederberg and Bergrivier in the centre and Saldanha Bay and Swartland in the south The WCDM is home to a population of 450 610 people and 129 862 households (WCDM, 2017:13).

The WCDM aims to address five main strategic goals: (1) ensure environmental integrity for the West Coast; (2) pursue economic growth and the facilitation of job opportunities; (3) promote the social wellbeing of the community and targeted social groups in the district; (4) promote bulk infrastructure development services; and (5) ensure good governance and financial viability (WCDM, 2017:24). Within the context of this study, three of the five objectives listed in the WCDM-IDP are in support of the Cederberg Complex's strategies. These agreements are captured in table 4.1.

4.4.1.2. Cederberg Local Municipality's Integrated Development Plan (2017-2022)

The Cederberg Local Municipality comprises of 25.7 per cent of the WCDM, equalling to a total of 8 007 km^2 (Cederberg Local Municipality, 2017a:59). The Municipality lists six strategic goals aligned to that of the District Municipality, designed to add value to the Cederberg Complex. Accordingly, the third and sixth objectives are in agreement with the Complex's strategies. These agreements are captured in table 4.1.

According to the Cederberg Local Municipality, the population totals at 52 949 people equalling to 15 279 households. The Municipality is confronted with a high unemployment figure (10,5 per cent) while a large percentage of the residents are considered semi-and unskilled (47 per cent) greatly due

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to their low literacy levels and lack of meaningful and supportive education (Cederberg Local Municipality, 2017a:15). It is in light of these statistics that economic and social developments are still great challenges to overcome in the Complex.

As stated by the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act (32 of 2000) (RSA, 2000:24) and echoed by the Cederberg Local Municipality, the B-Municipality's IDP is aligned in support of the WCDM's IDP as reflected in their strategic goals (see Addendum B). Accordingly, the supportive relationship amongst the IDP goals and CapeNature's strategies for the Cederberg Complex are expressed in Table 4.1.

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Table 4. 1: Alignment of objectives of the West Coast District and Cederberg (CapeNature, 2019b:49).

West Coast District Municipality's Strategic Goals (IDP)	Cederberg Local Municipality's Strategic Objectives (IDP)	CapeNature's Cederberg Complex Conservation Strategies
Strategic goal 1: To create the environmental integrity of the West Coast	Strategic goal 5: To enable a resilient, sustainable, quality and inclusive living environment and human settlements	Strategic goal 1: Address Invasive Alien Fish control on priority rivers within the Cederberg Complex and its Zone of Influence.
		Strategic goal 3: Through partnership, enhance the management and protection of the fynbos, Clanwilliam cedar tree and heritage values of the Cederberg Complex.
		Strategic goal 9: Through partnership, address Invasive Alien Plant clearing and compliance within the Zone of Influence of the Cederberg Complex.
		Strategic goal 2: Address Invasive Alien Species control through the development of an Invasive Alien Species control plan for the Cederberg Complex.
Strategic goal 2: To purpose economic growth and the facilitation of job opportunities	Strategic goal 4: To facilitate, expand and nurture sustainable economic growth and eradicate poverty	Strategic goal 17: Support economic development through skills & capacity building and identifying sustainable work opportunities for surrounding communities within the Cederberg Complex and its Zone of Influence.
		Strategic goal 6: Incorporate protected area priorities and Zone of Influence outputs into municipal Integrated Development Plans and Spatial Development Frameworks.
Strategic goal 3: To promote the social well-being of residents, communities and targeted social groups in the district	Strategic goal 6: To facilitate social cohesion and safe and healthy communities	Strategic goal 12: Through partnership, address illegal and unsustainable resource utilisation practices which include domestic animals, extra-limital game, poaching, overgrazing and land degradation within the Cederberg Complex and its Zone of Influence.
		Strategic goal 16: Through partnership, address socio-economic challenges of surrounding communities within the Zone of Influence of the Cederberg Complex.
		Strategic goal 5: The CapeNature Natural Resource Utilisation policy and Permit System must provide usage categories and guidelines for Cultural, Medicinal and Spiritual use.

4.4.2 Spatial Development Framework

A Spatial Development Framework (SDF) is a technical document guiding the spatial profile of a municipality by focussing on its land use and land development decisions (Van Wyk, 2016:55). Armed with their IDP as leading governing frameworks, the municipal SDF stipulates how the IDP strategies will be implemented in a space to achieve a municipality's desired pattern of land-use. The SDF, therefore, provides strategic guidance to the location and form of development, as well as

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conservation (CapeNature, 2012:11). As with the IDP, the SDF must be revised and prepared on a five-year cycle. It serves as the primary framework guiding change in land use rights and public investment in infrastructure. Hence, the SDF is responsible for planning future growth and spatial development of sustainable settlements and stimulating economic growth (Cederberg Local Municipality, 2017b:iv).

4.5.2.1 West Coast District Municipality's SDF (2019 – 2024)

The SDF of the WCDM was approved in March 2017 and has been adopted as a core component of the current IDP (2019 - 2024) (Cederberg Local Municipality, 2017b:iv). It is based on three overarching themes, which coincide with the three themes used by the Provincial Government in its most recent Provincial Spatial Development Framework (PSDF) – the built environment; socio-economic development; and the biophysical environment (WCDM, 2019:68). In support of the District's IDP, the SDF set their three strategic goals planning towards sustainable development:

1. The built environment: to optimise the capacity and infrastructure of the areas with the biggest potential for economic development, while serving the District Municipality's population with basic services, endorsing spatial transformation and equal access to opportunities.
2. Socio-economic development: to foster an environment that stimulates economic growth, tourism development and job creation, while addressing the safety and wellness of the community through education and health facilities.
3. The biophysical environment: to safeguard the District Municipality's key biodiversity and agricultural assets by minimising human impact and combat potential consequences such as climate change (WCDM, 2019:68).

4.5.2.2 Cederberg Local Municipality's SDF (2017-2022)

The Cederberg Local Municipality is rich with agricultural, scenic biodiversity and conservation and tourist and cultural resources. Equally, it is their responsibility to utilise these in a sustainable manner. The Municipality's spatial vision is designed to address the needs survey and the Municipality's Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats (SWOT) analysis of the biophysical, socio-economic and built environment (Cederberg Local Municipality, 2017b:30). These five spatial objectives are designed to address the balance between development and conservation:

1. To grow and unlock economic prosperity is alignment with the IDP's second and fourth strategic objectives.
2. To proximate convenient and equal access is in support of the IDP's first and third strategic objective.

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3. To sustain material, physical and social well-being is developed to address the IDP's fifth and sixth strategic objectives.
4. To protect and grow place identity and cultural integrity supports the IDP's second and third strategic objective.
5. To protect ecological and agricultural integrity adds value to the IDP's fourth strategic objective (Cederberg Local Municipality, 2017b:30).

4.5. CAPENATURE

CapeNature is a Schedule 3C public entity governmental organisation dedicated to conserving the natural environment in the Western Cape Province. The mandate is discharged in terms of Schedule 4 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, which sets out functional areas of concurrent national provincial competence (CapeNature, 2017:14). CapeNature is the implementation vehicle of the Western Cape Nature Conservation Board (WCNCB), constituted in terms of the Western Cape Conservation Act (15 of 1998) (CapeNature, 2017:14).

Created to conserve nature for a sustainable future, CapeNature aims to promote, manage and conserve human, natural and heritage assets through best practice, sustainable use and sharing befits and knowledge (CapeNature, 2017). By partnering with various stakeholders and communities, CapeNature runs numerous programmes and projects ensuring successful conservation economies within the Western Cape Province. Viewing biodiversity holistically and treating each natural entity as important, Cape Nature's activities are not limited to plants and vegetation, but also includes mammals, avifauna, reptiles, amphibians, arthropods, freshwater fish, estuaries and freshwater ecosystems (CapeNature, 2012:1; CapeNature, 2017: iv).

4.5.1. CapeNature's strategic outcomes

To protect the Western Cape Province's natural environment is no easy feat. To simplify this mammoth task, CapeNature groups their obligations into four strategic outcome-oriented goals:

Table 4. 2: CapeNature's strategic goals in relation to other Western Cape Governmental goals (CapeNature, 2017).

Strategic Goal 1	**Combat biodiversity loss within the Western Cape Province** The first goal focusses on combating biodiversity loss within the province. CapeNature aims to safeguard biodiversity and ecosystem services (both within and outside of nature reserves) by ensuring effective knowledge

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	dissemination regarding conservation priorities, implementation of the Western Cape Biodiversity Plan and other relevant strategies relating to integrated biodiversity planning and management (CapeNature, 2012:1; CapeNature, 2017: 31).
Agreements	• Western Cape Province Government's third and fourth strategic goal: Increase wellness, safety and tackle social ills. • Western Cape Province Government's fourth strategic goal: Enable a resilient, sustainable, quality and inclusive living environment. • Department of Environmental Affairs and Development Planning Strategic Objective Goal 1: Sustain the ecological and agricultural resource-base.
Strategic Goal 2	**Cultivate, enrich and develop unique natural and cultural heritage** CapeNature is mandated to promote the utilisation and mindfulness of natural resources not only for research and educational purposes but also for cultural, spiritual and traditional intent (CapeNature, 2017:32; CapeNature, 2012:1).
Agreements	• Western Cape Province Government's second strategic goal: Improve education outcomes and opportunity for youth development. • Western Cape Province Government's third strategic goal: Increase wellness, safety and tackle social ills. • Western Cape Province Government's fourth strategic goal: Enable a resilient, sustainable, quality and inclusive living environment. • DEA&DP's Strategic Objective Goal 2: Increase economic opportunity through low-carbon development, the biodiversity economy and resource-efficient economy.
Strategic Goal 3	**Sustain economic development though the biodiversity and conservation economy** CapeNature aims to increase local economic development by encouraging public participation, especially within previously disadvantaged groups (CapeNature, 2017:33; CapeNature, 2012:1).
Agreement	• Western Cape Province Government Strategic Goals 1: Create opportunities for growth and jobs. • Western Cape Province Government's third strategic goal: Increase wellness, safety and tackle social ills. • Western Cape Province Government's fourth strategic goal: Enable a resilient, sustainable, quality and inclusive living environment. • DEA&DP's Strategic Objective Goal 4: Increase economic opportunity through low-carbon development, the biodiversity economy and resource-efficient economy.
Strategic Goal 4	**Ensure effective governance and organisational wellbeing through cutting edge leadership**

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	CapeNature is committed to promote and sustain the principles of good governance, sound resource (financial and human) management, organisational wellbeing and sourcing and nourishing strategic cooperative partnerships (CapeNature, 2017:33; CapeNature, 2012:1).
Agreement	• Western Cape Province Government Strategic Goals 5: Embed good government and integrated service delivery through partnerships and spatial alignment. • DEAD&DP's Strategic Objective Goal 5: Good governance and integrated management.

CapeNature works closely with the local communities and governing structures to achieve their goals and set mandates. In terms of the NEM:PAA, Regulation 9 (Gazette, No 35021): Proper administration of nature reserves, a management authority may establish one or more advisory committees in respect of a nature reserve and will be referred to as the Protected Areas Advisory Committee (PAAC) CapeNature, 2012:18). As per the Terms of Reference, each member is expected to serve voluntary for a fixed period of two years, however, member representation may extend beyond the two-year period, should it be in the best interest of conservation and good governance.

4.6 CONCLUSION

With the new South African democratic government taking effect in 1994 the government inherited a set of structures and relationships, laws, policies, guidelines and procedures that formed the basis for managing the environment in a democratic South Africa (Muller, 2009:69). The newly constitutional democracy called for a restructuring of intergovernmental relations and redefinition of responsibilities across all three spheres of government (Muller, 2009:80).

At national government sphere, there are three legislative mechanisms to protect the environment — the first being the Constitution (Van der Linde, 2009:193). The Constitution is the Republic of South Africa's most supreme law, forming the base of all other laws, policies and frameworks to follow. Accordingly, the Constitution recognises the importance of governing the environment well. Within the Bill of Rights, (Chapter two of the Constitution), it advocates for an environment that is not harmful to anyone's wellbeing and ensure the equal opportunity for future generations (RSA, 1996).

The second legislative mechanism dedicated to protecting the environment is the environmental framework (such as NEMA) and the third mechanism is the more context-specific environmental legislation covering a range of environmental media (Van der Linde, 2009:193). In the context of this

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study, the NEM:PAA is a key example to a third mechanism. In South Africa, all three mechanisms are required to sufficiently address the protection of the environment.

The Cederberg Complex totals to approximated 79 935 hectares of pristine biodiversity and agrology. It is situated within the borders of the Cederberg Local Municipality as well as the jurisdiction of the West Coast District Municipality. In order to address the need of the Complex in a robust manner while upholding the constitutional rights and laws, the area is governed by two sets of Integrated Development Plans (IDP) and Spatial Development Frameworks (SDF).

Ultimately, the South African policy and legislative frameworks echo the good governance principles and collaborative environmental governance theories as explored in chapter 2. Accordingly, the laws, policies, management plans and frameworks are rooted in participation, accountability, transparency, strategic vision, the rule of law and multi-stakeholder engagement (i.e. collaborative governance).

The next chapter will explain the research methodology used to gather and evaluate the information.

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CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The study aims to investigate how good environmental governance and ecotourism could be utilised as tools to stimulate local economic development in the Cederberg Complex. Chapters 2 and 3 laid the foundation for understanding the value and meaning of good environmental governance and ecotourism while chapter 4 discussed the applicable legislation and policies governing protected areas, tourism activities, and collaborative governance in South Africa and more specifically, the Cederberg Complex.

This chapter will explain the research methodology used to conduct the study by exploring the research design, ethical considerations and limitations of the study.

5.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study's research methodology is a descriptive case study with exploratory components. A case study research design was implemented for the study and was executed qualitatively. According to Yin (2009:18), case study research is defined as, "an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident" (cited in Farquhar, 2012:6). Accordingly, the case study approach allowed the researcher to perform a deep dive into a phenomenon's context. Likewise, Stake (1995:1) describes a case study research as, "enter[ing] the scene with a sincere interest in learning how [actors] function in ordinary pursuits and milieus and with a willingness to put aside many presumptions while we learn" (cited in Farquhar, 2012:6).

Both these definitions emphasise the ability to investigate the events occurring in a particular context. The approach is primarily empirical research focussed using both qualitative and quantitative data. Consequently, the approach relies on a close collaboration between the researchers and the participants to collect data and allowing participants to share their stories and insights (Crabtree & Miller, cited in Baxter & Jack, 2008:545; Farquhar, 2012:6). The case study approach is, therefore, often time considered when: (1) the research is focused on answering "how", "when", or "why" questions; (2) the researcher has little control over events; and (3) the research is investigating a contemporary phenomenon (Yin, cited in Farquhar, 2012:6).

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More specifically, for this study, the researcher conducted a predominantly descriptive case study with exploratory components. Accordingly, the study will not only be "describe an intervention or phenomenon [i.e. good environmental governance and ecotourism] and the real-life context in which it occurs" (i.e. in the Cederberg Complex), but also "explores those situations in which the intervention or phenomenon has no clean, single set of outcomes" and how these could potentially be addressed (Yin, cited in Baxter & Jack, 2008:548). Therefore, the study will aim to address "how", "when", or "why", and "what" questions.

Although the case study approach allows a deeper dive into a selected research topic and the opportunity to validate findings through member checking, it is a time-consuming approach (Burger, 2014).

5.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

The descriptive case study research methodology with exploratory elements will be supported by both an empirical and non-empirical research design types (see figure 5.1). According to Mouton, empirical studies are observational or experimental rather than theoretical, whereas non-empirical studies are based on theory (Mouton 2001:144).

The use of secondary data (non-empirical data, as explored in chapters 2, 3 and parts of chapter 4) establishes a fundamental understanding of concepts and guiding frameworks crucial to this study. The concepts of governance, good environmental governance and ecotourism will be explored in the context of the governing authorities and other stakeholders in the study area. Supported by empirical data collection through semi-structured interviews with CapeNature representatives, private landowners, West Coast District Municipality, Cederberg Local Municipality, Department of Environmental Affairs and Development Planning, as well as active community members such as Clanwilliam Tourism Office, the data collected serves to unlock a greater understanding of ecotourism development and the collaborative governance applied in the Cederberg Complex.

5.3.1. Empirical data

As suggested by figure 5.1, the empirical study consists of both primary data and existing (secondary) data. The researcher conducted semi-structured interview and consulted existing data (qualitative as well as quantitative).

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5.3.1.1 Semi-structured interviews

The semi-structured interview (or SSI for short), refers to a conversation conducted with one respondent at a time and consists of both open- and close-ended questions, often accompanied by follow-up "why" or "how" questions (Adams, 2015:493). Unlike a formal and highly structured interview, the SSI dialogue can roam around the topics listed on an agenda as well as explore other unforeseen issues. According to Adams, the ideal SSI should not exceed 60 minutes to minimise potential fatigue for both the interviewer and respondent (2015:493).

The SSI process is considered to be time-consuming and requires the researcher to analyse hours of transcripts and interview notes. However, by asking open-ended questions, the approach allows for a personal connection and enables the respondent to share thoughts and information they may not be willing to share with other industry players in focus groups (Adams, 2015:493).

To fully represent the collaborative governance approach applied to the management of the Cederberg Complex, the researcher engaged with a wide range of stakeholders. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with governing authorities (CapeNature, Cederberg Local Municipality, West Coast District Municipality and the Department of Environmental Affairs and Development Planning), tourism implementing agents (Clanwilliam Tourism and Cederberg Heritage Route), private landowners residing in the Cederberg Complex (Jamaka Organic Farm, Driehoek Wine Farm and Pakhuis Farm), as well as a representative of another farm, Sanddrif Holiday Resort.

The interviews were arranged at a time and location to suit the needs of the participant and increase their comfort levels. Usually, interviews occurred at the correspondent's workplace and ranged from thirty to eighty minutes. During the interviews, the researcher took notes for follow-up questions and explanations. Due to the personal nature of the interview tool, the researcher was able to not only have a direct question-answer opportunity, but it also allowed for observation as to how the interviewee was responding to certain questions. However, four interviews were conducted telephonically due to logistical difficulties.

The CapeNature representatives were selected based on their experience, knowledge of the study area and mandated function within the organisation. A semi-structured interview with Mr Mathews, an infrastructure specialist in the Tourism Development Department, was conducted at CapeNature's headquarters. This interview was focused on tourism development, growth and implementation facilitated by CapeNature within the Cederberg Complex and the Western Cape.

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Due to distance and unavailability, the interview with Ms Du Plessis (Conservation Manager of the Cederberg Complex) (2019) was conducted telephonically and not in person. Consequently, the interview was more structured and concise. With Du Plessis's particular experience in governing conservation activities in the Cederberg Complex, the discussion was more focused on the application of good governance by CapeNature as well as (eco)tourism and operational challenges faced in the area.

Due to conflicting schedules, the interview with Mr Ackhurst (2020) from the Department of Environmental Affairs and Development Planning's Biodiversity unit, was also conducted per telephone call. Accordingly, the interview was content-focused although the dialogue was still guided by a semi-structured approach. The discussion focussed on the Department's relationship with CapeNature and how the Department enforces good governance.

The interview with Mr Mercuur (2019), the Strategic Services Manager at Cederberg Local Municipality, was conducted at the municipality's offices in Clanwilliam and followed a semi-structured approach. Mercuur is responsible for local economic and tourism development of the B-Municipality. The conversation was focused on the Municipality's role in developing tourism activities in the study area, governance functions, as well as the municipality's relationship and cooperation with CapeNature.

The interview with Mr Abrahams (2020a), tourism manager at the West Coast District Municipality (WCDM), was also conducted per telephone call. The conversation followed a semi-structured approach and focussed on the District Municipality's role in governing tourism development in their area of authority. The WCMD's relationship with CapeNature and the B-municipality were also discussed.

Three private landowners perusing agricultural and tourism activities in the Cederberg Complex were consulted. The first, Dr Nieuwoudt is from Jamaka Organic Farm located 5 km north of Algeria Cederberg Campsite. The second, Mr Burger representing both Driehoek Farm as well as the Cederberg Conservancy is based ±24 km south-east from Algeria Campsite. The third landowner consulted was Mr Thys Kruger functioning both as the owner of De Pakhuis Farm and chair of the Rocklands Partnership.

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Due to conflicting schedules, Kruger was interviewed per telephone call. Due to unavailability of the owner, Ms Fortuin representing the Sanddrif Holiday Resort was interviewed. Although Sanddrif is located 28 km south-east from Algeria, the interview took place at their main offices based on Dwars River farm, also known as Cederberg Private Cellar. These discussions were centred on the role they play in implementing ecotourism activities in the Cederberg Complex as well as their respective relationships with CapeNature, the WCDM, Cederberg Local Municipality and DEA&DP.

Ms Potgieter (2019), the chair of Clanwilliam Tourism Information, and partner of the Cederberg Heritage Route was interviewed at the Tourism offices in Clanwilliam. The discussion focused on Clanwilliam Tourism's relationship with CapeNature, how tourism activities are governed in the area. Accordingly, the interview was semi-structured and conversation-based.

5.3.1.2. Existing data

Although the semi-structured interviews greatly contributed towards the research findings in chapter 6 to follow, the researcher consulted various existing data sources such as national laws, collection of management plans, Integrated Performance Plans, Spatial Development Frameworks, Annual Performance Plans and Annual Reports, tourism strategies and management plans. These records provided the researcher with both qualitative (statistics) and quantitative (organisational perspective) data as presented in both chapters 4 and 6.

5.3.2. Non-empirical research

As suggested by Mouton (2001:144) and supported by Dan (2017:1), non-empirical research can be divided into two categories. The first refers to the review of the progress in a field of study (e.g., systematic literature review, meta-analysis), and the second refers to the author's observations, reflections or current events (e.g., critical studies, editor's introduction). Accordingly, the researcher consulted various sources of literature for the literature review (chapters 2 and 3). Although chapter four is predominately based on the review of governmental publications (and therefore empirical data), it also includes the review of legislative scholarly articles and content analysis that are considered non-empirical research.

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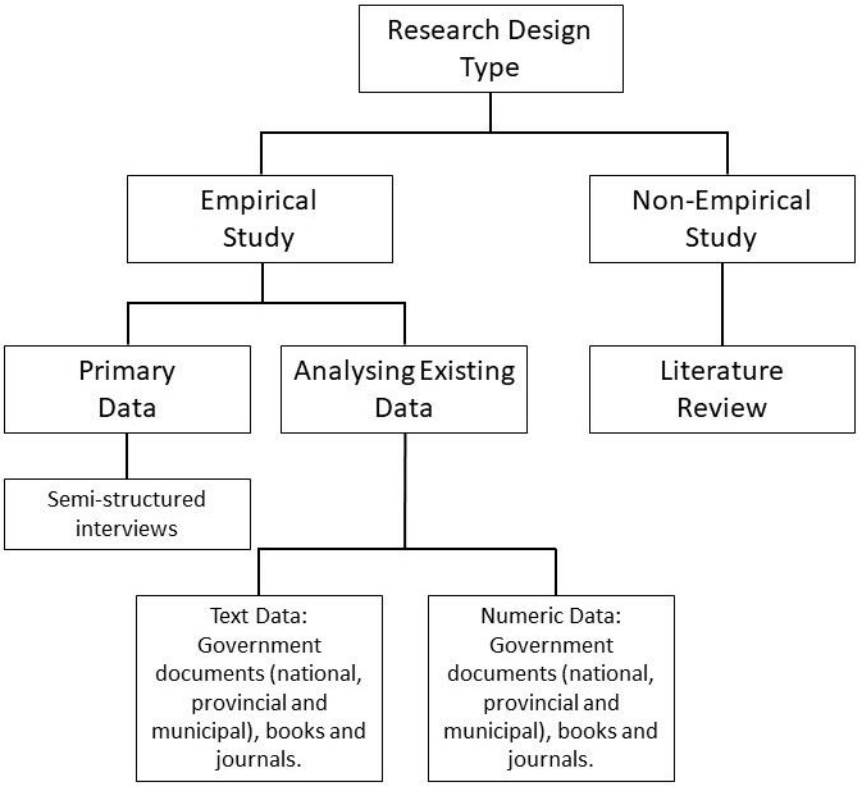

Figure 5. 1: Research Design Types (Adapted from Burger, 2014).

5.4 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

This study complied with the ethical considerations specified by the Research Ethics Committee (REC) of Stellenbosch University. The identified research participants were invited to partake in the study by a semi-structured interview. During the first engagement and at the beginning of the interview process the researcher explained the purpose of the study well as the reason to for choosing them to participate.

All participants were informed of the value they participation added to the study and were informed of their right to withdraw from the research process at any stage should they not be comfortable. Each interview was treated with upmost respect and sensitivity towards the institution and participant. A full list of organisations engaged with, semi-structured interview guidelines and research ethical clearance are found in addendum C, D, and E, respectively.

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5.5 LIMITATIONS TO THE STUDY

There were limitations to this study, as described in chapter 1, such as the unavailability and unwillingness of various stakeholders to participate in the study. Due to the distance, conflicting schedules and time constraints it was not possible to schedule face-to-face interviews with all participants. However, a few participants were willing to be interviewed per telephone. The telephone interviews and discussions were conducted at a time that suited to the participant's schedule.

As Cederberg Complex is not only managed and owned by CapeNature but also private landowners, and other governmental entities (West Coast District Municipality and Cederberg Local Municipality) holistically the researcher found difficulty in accessing updated data reflecting the number of guests accessing the Complex without permits. This is also reflected in the challenges highlighted by both the private landowners and CapeNature on page 100.

5.6 CONCLUSION

The researcher conducted a descriptive case study with exploratory components, executed by empirical and non-empirical research. The empirical research was executed through semi-structured interviews and analysis of existing data. Guided by open-ended questions, the semi-structured interview process allows the dialogue to roam listed themes while allowing flexibility to explore other unforeseen topics. The existing data explored related to various governmental documents such as Annual Performance Plans and Annual Reports, Integrated Development Plans and Spatial Development Frameworks, tourism strategies and other management plans.

The chapter also highlighted the ethical considerations in conducting the study. The chapter also explored some challenges to executing the described research design as not all interview participants were available for face-to-face meetings. Furthermore, the study was limited by the participant's availability and willingness to participate in the study.

The next chapter will discuss the study's findings by addressing the fourth, fifth and sixth research questions. Accordingly, the chapter will investigate: (1) how CapeNature as the governing authority of the Cederberg Complex adheres to good environmental governance principles; (2) how ecotourism is governed and implemented in the study area; and (3) identify success stories of collaboratively governed ecotourism activities in the Cederberg Complex.

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CHAPTER 6: FINDINGS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapters 2 and 3 laid the foundation for understanding the value and meaning of good environmental governance and ecotourism. Chapter 4 discussed the applicable legislation and policies governing protected areas, tourism and the activities within the Cederberg Complex. Chapter 5 explored the research methodology and design the researcher followed to conduct the study. This chapter will explore the area of study in more detail by setting the scene of the ecological, archaeological, historical and cultural value of the Cederberg Complex. Thus, it will aim to address the fourth, fifth and sixth research objectives by investigating: how good environmental governance principles are executed by CapeNature as the governing authority of the Cederberg Complex; how ecotourism is implemented in the Cederberg Complex; and aim to identify collaboratively governed ecotourism activities in the Cederberg Complex.

6.1.1 Background to the Cederberg Complex

The Cederberg Complex covers approximately 79 687 hectares consisting of the Cederberg Wilderness (65 133 ha), Matjies River Nature Reserve (12 876 ha) and Hexberg State Forest (1 678 ha). Situated in the Cederberg Mountains, about 250 km north of Cape Town, the Complex stretches from Clanwilliam to Citrusdal (see Addendum A for map of the Cederberg Complex). Consequently, the area falls within the boundaries of both the Cederberg Local Municipality as well as the West Coast District Municipality (CapeNature, 2019b:45).

The Cederberg Wilderness stretches from Middelberg Pass at Citrusdal in the south to north of the Pakhuis Pass at Clanwilliam, home to ± 67 000 hectares of rugged mountainous topography. Its offices and main access point via Algeria are situated 17 km from the N7 – between Citrusdal and Clanwilliam (CapeNature, 2019b:45). The Hexberg State Forest is a mere 8 km from the Cederberg Wilderness with a main access route via the main road (R303) running from Citrusdal towards Ceres.

East of the Cederberg Wilderness lies the Matjies River Nature Reserve with its natural boundary, the Doorn River (towards the east), separating Tankwa Karoo and the Northern Cape Province. From north to south the reserve is approximately 15 km wide and east to west about 22 km. Its offices and main entrance route are via the road that runs from Clanwilliam to Ceres (CapeNature, 2019b:45).

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Situated in the Cederberg Mountains, about 250 km north of Cape Town, the Complex stretches from Clanwilliam to Citrusdal. Consequently, the area falls under the jurisdiction of the Cederberg Local Municipality as well as the West Coast District Municipality. The Cederberg Complex is committed to govern the protected areas in the complex according to the internationally accepted principles of a Wilderness Area and a World Heritage Site (CapeNature, 2012:iv).

Nestled within the Greater Cape Floristic Kingdom, the Cederberg Complex is rich in flora diversity including the fynbos and semi-arid succulent Karoo species (CapeNature, 2019b:73). In total the Complex hosts 10 vegetation types: Cederberg Sandstone Fynbos (52%), Olifants Sandstone Fynbos (30%), the Swartruggens Quartzite Fynbos (8%), Swartruggens Quartzite Karoo (4%), Northern Inland Shale Bank Vegetation (3%), Fynbos Riparian Vegetation (2%), Agter-Sederberg Shrubland (1%), Western Altimontane Sandstone Fynbos (<1%), and the Citrusdal Vygieveld (<1%) (CapeNature, 2012:40). Overall, the Complex is relatively free of alien vegetation. However, the Cederberg Wilderness is confronted with the presence of Black Wattle and Australian Black Wood species along the slopes of Middelberg and Algeria as well as along Rondegat River towards the Clanwilliam Dam.

The Cederberg Complex is surrounded by relatively untouched landscapes, many of which have gained conservation status through the years using various initiatives such as the CapeNature Stewardship and Greater Cederberg Biodiversity Corridor programmes (CapeNature, 2012: 46). The rugged mountains and deep valleys of the Cederberg Complex is home to unique mammal species - the Cape Mountain Zebra (*Equus zebra zebra)*, the Klipspringer (Oreotragus oreotragus), Grey Rhebok (Pelea capreolus), the Leopard (*Panthera pardus)* as well as the Namaqua Rock Mouse (Micaelamys namaquensis) and the Spectacled Dormouse (Graphiurus ocularis) (CapeNature, 2012: 47).

The Cederberg Complex is also recorded to be home to 180 species of avifauna. Although they are widely distributed, the Verreaux eagle is an iconic top predator in the ecological area (CapeNature, 2019b:92). Reptiles are included, but not limited to, the endangered McLachlan's girdled lizard (*Cordylus mclachlani),* Small-scaled lead-toed gecko *(Goggia microlepidota)* and the Armadillo Girdled Lizard *(Cordylus cataphractus)* (CapeNature, 2019b:82). The Complex forms part of the greater Olifants-Doring River System (ODRS), home to the largest number of endemic fish species of any river system found in South Africa (CapeNature, 2019b:82). The ODRS is home to 10 recognised species, 8 of which are endemic to the area and 9 classified as endangered according to the International Union for Conservation of Nature's (IUCN) red list criteria (CapeNature, 2019b:82). One of the biggest threats to the indigenous fish is the increasing presence of invasive alien plants growing alongside the rivers,

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causing a complete change in habitat and reducing streamflow. A new invertebrate species, the Katydid (*Griffiniana duplessisae)* was discovered within the study area, totalling the recorded invertebrate species to a total of 198 (although there is a general lack of recorded data on the invertebrate taxa) (CapeNature, 2019b:54).

Aside from the ecological beauty and value, records show the Cederberg Complex to be home to inhabitants dating back to the Stone Age, including the San and Khoi who lived in the Cederberg prior to the arrival of the early European Settlers in the 17th century (CapeNature, 2019b:51). Throughout the study area there are various cultural historical buildings and structures indicating the activities of the previous inhabitants. These structures include kraals, graves, hyena stone traps, blockhouses, homesteads and shepherds' houses. The Cederberg area is also protector of an even greater historical treasure and lodged with the archaeological database at the University of Cape Town for its rock art. These predominantly fine-line and finger artworks paintings by the early Khoi-San descendants depict therianthropes, human figures, animals, handprints and dots, as well as other smeared paints and patters (CapeNature, 2019b:53).

Notably so, these ecological and historical treasures and its mountainous setting are ideal for hiking activities. Altogether the Complex has approximately 500 km of trails and Jeep tracks often used by visitors to explore the various scenic sites, rock formations, caves, waterfalls and boulders (CapeNature, 2019b:110). The Cederberg Complex welcomes low impact activities in celebration of its geological and archaeological heritage.

These ecological, archaeological and cultural treasures are worth protecting. The opportunity exists to enhance the value of the natural beauty situated within the Cederberg Complex by implementing ecotourism as a tool to promote conservation on the foundation of good environmental governance principles.

6.2 FINDINGS

For the study, the findings will be discussed in four phases. The first phase will focus on the financial context of CapeNature and the value tourism activities play towards CapeNature's budget. The second phase will unpack the value and implementation of good environmental governance structures within CapeNature. The third will focus on the implementation and management of ecotourism activities in

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the Cederberg Complex, followed by the fourth – the identification of good environmentally governed ecotourism activities.

6.2.1 CapeNature financial activities

Year on year, there is an increasing demand for more effective conservation. This creates a spill-over effect, demanding more action and result-driven outcomes from local (and national) biodiversity agencies such as CapeNature in the Western Cape, Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife in Kwa-Zulu Natal, and SAN Parks nationally (CapeNature, 2019d:2; Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife, 2019; SANParks, 2019).

Governed by the Western Cape Nature Conservation Board (WCNCB) and established by the Western Cape Nature Conservation Board Act, 1998 (Act 15 of 1998), CapeNature is seen as an impacting vehicle appointed by Department of Environmental Affairs and Development Planning (DEA&DP). CapeNature's budget is partly funded by the Medium-Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF). Although the allocated government grants are well managed against a budget and identified projects, it is mostly allocated towards the maintenance and upgrading of conservation sites and therefore considered to be *investment funding* (CapeNature, 2019b:106; Mathews, 2019).

Accompanied by the increased capacity constraints and lack of available resources, CapeNature's MTEF funding is considerably downsized, affecting the organisation's operations and personal growth. This caused a reshuffle in budget priorities to address sector indicators and natural environmental objectives with limited resources (CapeNature, 2017:9). This is supported by Mathews, explaining the need for CapeNature to acquire additional funding to maintain their operations. These funds are predominantly generated from commercial activities (Mathews, 2019; CapeNature, 2019b: 106). In response, conservation agencies (such as CapeNature) shifted their paradigm allowing tourism to actively drive an additional income stream (Mathews, 2019).

6.2.1.1. Financial findings

Over the years the total amount of government funding supporting CapeNature has increased quite significantly as supported by figure 6.1. In 2008, the total amount of governmental monetary grants received was R76 478 000, contributing short of 45 per cent of the total revenue generated that year. This amount almost quadrupled in 2019, with the monetary governmental grants totalling to R290 531 000, reflecting a 398.12 per cent increase since 2008 (CapeNature, 2009:113; CapeNature, 2019a:72).

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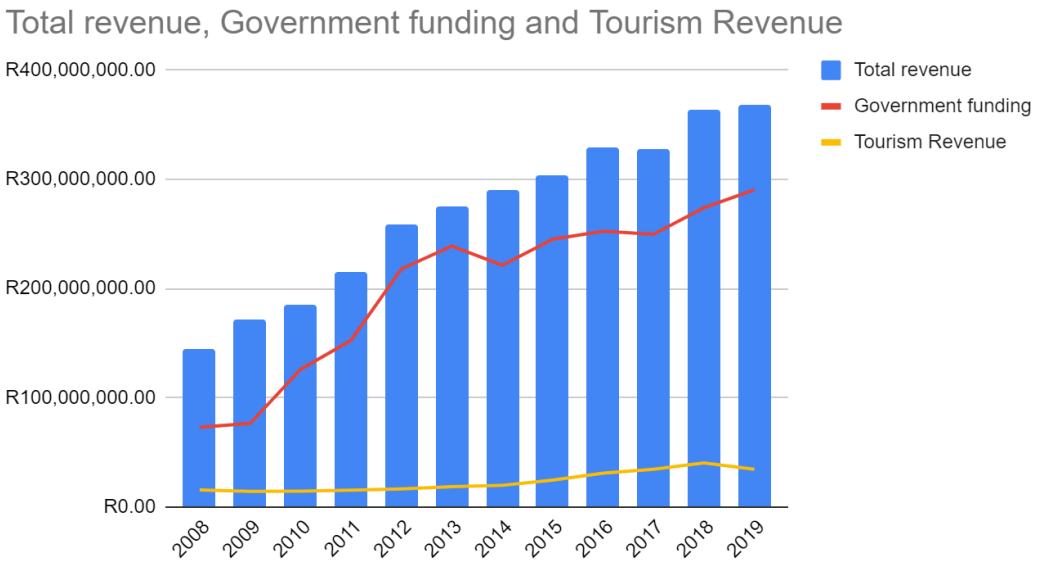

Figure 6. 1: CapeNatue's total revenue, government funding and tourism revenue (CapeNature, 2009; 2010; 2012; 2013; 2014; 2015; 2017; 2019a)

As indicated by figure 6.2, about 10 years ago CapeNature's annual tourism income totalled to just over R14 million annually (at R14 258 391). The biggest contributing factor was gate entry fees to conservation areas for hiking and other activities. This contributed 60 per cent of the total tourism income in 2009 (CapeNature, 2009:113). As stated by a CapeNature representative, the income generated from tourism initiatives circulate in a closed-loop system directly supporting the activities of CapeNature. The annual tourism revenue consists of accommodation fees, entrance fees (hiking and activities), Wild Card access, Public-Private Partnerships (PPP), and filming fees.

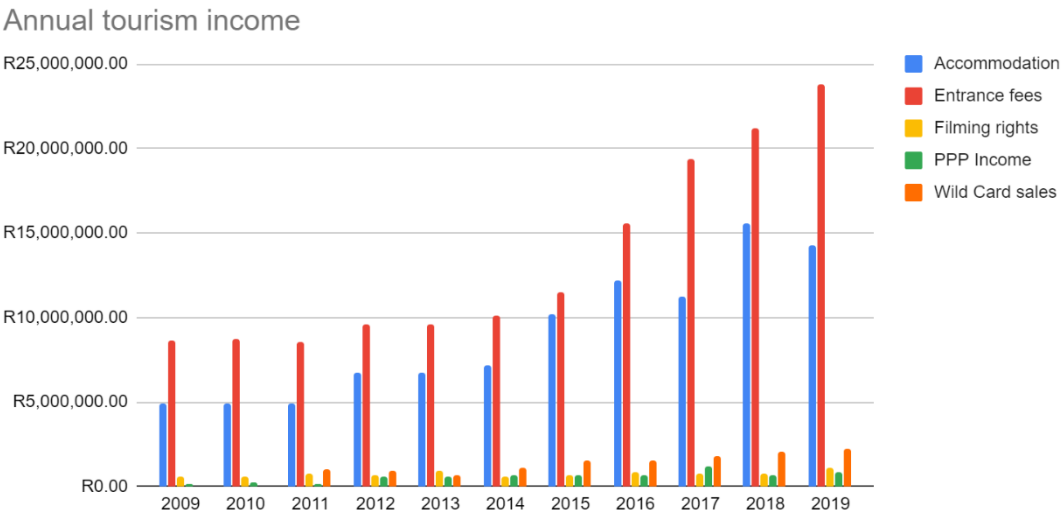

Figure 6. 2: CapeNature's annual tourism income breakdown (CapeNature, 2009; 2010; 2012; 2013; 2014; 2015; 2017; 2019a)

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In comparison to CapeNature's financial income, the Cederberg Complex is rather small. According to the 2019 Management Plan and captured in figure 6.3, the total budget for the 2019/2020 financial year was set at R15 725 238, of which an estimated R6 270 106 will be allocated towards operational costs and aligned to the strategic activities (see Addendum B for the full list of strategic objective) (CapeNature, 2019b:106).

Although the Western Cape Province's Department of Transport and Public Works is responsible for performing maintenance and upgrades to the buildings in CapeNature's Protected Areas as stated in the Government Immovable Assets Management Act (19 of 2007) (RSA, 2007), CapeNature requires an annual operating budget of R10 218 187 for 2019/2020 to successfully address all needs (Mathews, 2019; CapeNature, 2019b:107). It is therefore essential for CapeNature to build stronger collaborative ecotourism products to secure external funding.

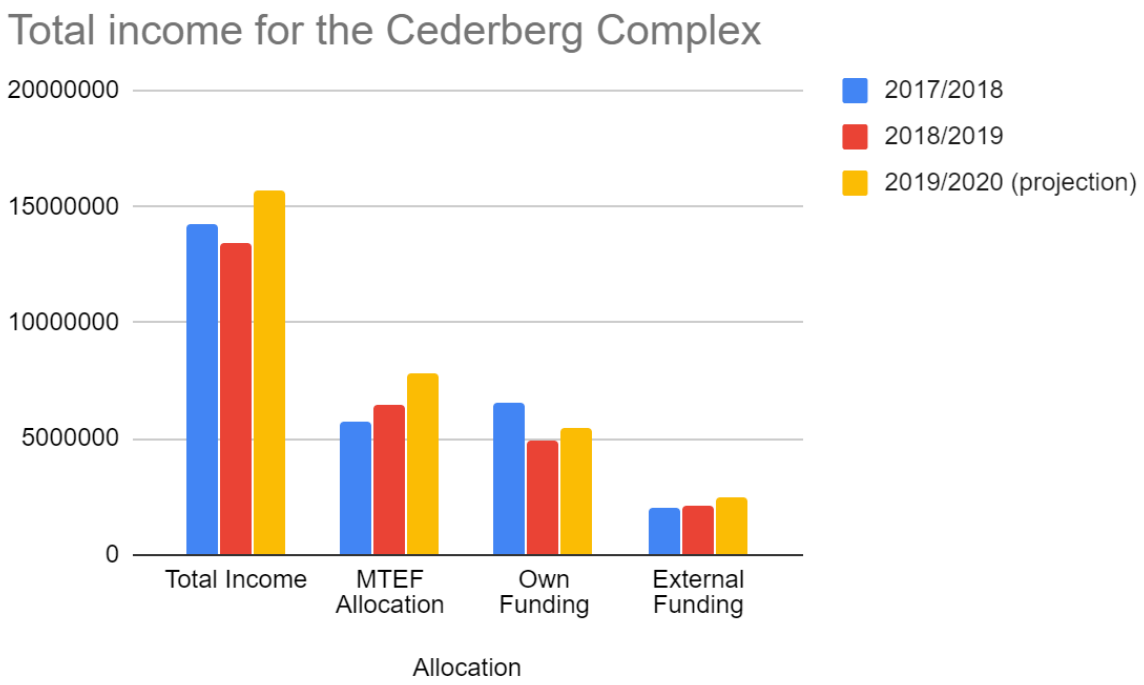

Figure 6. 3: Total income of the Cederberg Complex (CapeNature, 2019b:107)

In summary, although CapeNature's tourism industry has grown significantly over the years and is still increasing annually, the revenue generated is quite insignificant in comparison to the provided government funding. Although CapeNature is an agency of the Western Cape Province Government and is mainly funded by the government budget, the reality is that that the financial taps are under pressure. In a country faced with many different socio-economic and political challenges, conservation

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actions will not necessarily receive the biggest cut of the money pie. Therefore, the dream is ultimately to boost tourism activities through strategic collaboration to generate more income (Mathews, 2019; Du Plessis, 2019).

6.2.2. Good Environmental Governance by CapeNature

CapeNature is the implementation agent for biodiversity conservation governed by the Department of Environmental Affairs and Development Planning (DEA&DP). Accordingly, the Department is responsible for overseeing all CapeNature's activities and ensuring they are executed within the overarching legal and policy frameworks (DEA&DP, 2019:48). Authorised by a Ministerial Task Team appointed in 2013, CapeNature agreed to a cooperation agreement and performance plan with DEA&DP. According to Ackhurst (2020), this agreement is currently being reviewed and will include CapeNature to implement the mandates as stipulated under the Provincial Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan (PBSAP) as well as the Provincial Biodiversity Economy Strategy (PBES) (DEA&DP, 2019:48). CapeNature will be held accountable to ensure all relevant organisations are in alignment with these mandates within the Western Cape Province, including private landowners, national and local partners.

To ensure good governance and that CapeNature's strategic goals are adequately met, its performance is captured as Key Performance Indicators (KPIs) accompanied with a budget to ensure cost efficiency and evaluated in the Annual Performance Plan (APP). Accordingly, the CapeNature APP should be in alignment with the DEA&DP APP (Ackhurst, 2020; DEA&DP, 2019:115). The DEA&DP's Head of Department, Chief Financial Officer (CFO) and Chief Director of Environmental Sustainability are required to attend the quarterly CapeNature Board meetings. In the same way, DEA&DP representatives are required to attend each of the five CapeNature Board Committee meetings (DEA&DP, 2019:115).

Confirmed by Ackhurst (2020) and DEA&DP (2019), CapeNature is a non-political entity meaning as they do not associate with any political party but rather comply with their legislative mandates. However, cases have been reported where government officials are serving political agendas and resulted in the delay of CapeNature's project implementation (Abrahams, 2020a). It is the role of DEA&DP to address these issues with the relevant Councillors, speakers and Mayoral Committee members towards robust solutions and enforcing good governance (Ackhurst, 2020).

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CapeNature's activities are strategically envisioned and performance-oriented. Driving towards the execution of CapeNature's vision of conserving nature for a sustainable future, the Cederberg Complex is dedicated to:

- Present the desired results in terms of tangible conservation outcomes.
- Express how management will achieve desired results.
- Monitor and evaluate momentum towards pre-determined outcomes.
- Determine monitoring and evaluation checkpoints prior to the implementation phase.
- Consider expected outcomes of management at the outset of planning rather than at the end of implementation.
- Invest in management response appropriate to the risk.
- Reference data to guide management and adjust according to lessons learnt.
- Present findings with transparency, to facilitate knowledge dissemination by sharing acquired experience and honest feedback (CapeNature, 2019b:22).

These principles were identified to guide the implementation of Protected Area Management in practice. They are, therefore, in line with various conventions, national and provincial legislation and policy and require co-management to be implemented successfully (CapeNature, 2019b:22). In agreement with these principles, the activities performed by CapeNature within the Cederberg Complex are governed by a Strategic Adaptive Management (SAM) approach allowing for real-time intervention to address and achieve set goals. CapeNature implemented a multi-pronged approach to ensure accountability and legitimacy enforcing the adherence and execution of their regulatory mandate. This is executed by conducting biennial Management Effectiveness Tracking Tool (METT), operational audits measuring their accountability, strategic direction and identifying shortcomings in the alignment of the preceding METT assessment. The second approach is by means of regular reviews, monitoring and evaluating staff members' performance agreements which are strategically aligned to their job specifications.

6.2.2.1. Strategic Adaptive Management (SAM)

CapeNature's activities are governed by the Strategic Adaptive Management (SAM) approach. The approach allows for the execution of strategic intent by fully integrating it into planning, management, monitoring and implementation of action plans (CapeNature, 2019b: vi). The SAM framework is based on a systemic and dynamic approach to effect valuable change by (1) testing assumptions, (2) learning through monitoring and evaluations, and (3) adapting where necessary to achieve set goals and objectives. This process is dynamic and allows decision-makers to "change direction" when sufficient

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information indicates that management is not progressing in the desired direction as opposed to waiting until the end of a project's life to determine whether an intervention was successful or not (CapeNature, 2019b:22). Accordingly, the SAM is a primary example of how adaptive management turned to adaptive governance in practice. As explained in section 2.5.2, adaptive management is considered a "learn by doing" tool, allowing for adaption of management based on the learning (Allen *et al.,* 2011: 1339). Accordingly, the adaptive management serves as a process of continuous improvement, reducing uncertainties, building knowledge, and ultimately over time, improve management in a goal-oriented and structured manner.

Consequently, the SAM approach bridges management and decision science, by allowing an action to be made based on real measurable data. It, therefore, enables CapeNature to:

- govern and plan for complexities in an ever-changing environment towards agreed outcomes;
- monitor management effectiveness and adapt management actions based on tangible indicators;
- continuously monitor and evaluate the management actions and align them to set predictions;
- learn, reflect, and adapt based on data;
- amend and tailor management processes by defining and redefining; and
- engage and reflect with stakeholders (CapeNature, 2019b:23).

Adapted from *The Open Standards for the Practice of Conservation* (Conservation Measures Partnership (CPM), 2013), the SAM framework adopts the adaptive governance practice as it encourages management teams to look beyond the traditional boardroom and engage with various stakeholders consulting the "best available traditional, expert and scientific information" to develop healthy conservation strategies (CapeNature, 2019b:23). The approach measures success and incorporates best practices and previous lessons learned, by collaborating with stakeholders across the conservation value chain, seeking engagement with knowledgeable experts (CapeNature, 2019b:23).

The framework assesses the viability (i.e. health conditions) of the conservation targets (referred to as "values" in the Cederberg Complex Management Plan) as well as the threats challenging the values (CapeNature, 2019b:23). Therefore, long-term goals or desired state of values are developed and assigned to a timeframe to monitor and measure the success of strategies in the short- and medium-term. The Open Standard follows a systematic five-step approach:

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1. Conceptualising the protected area - defining the purpose of the conservation project and what the challenges and opportunities are.
2. Plan Actions and Monitoring – drafting the plan and associated goals.
3. Implementing Actions and Monitoring – continuous action, monitoring and evaluation.
4. Analysing and Adaption – based on results to determine whether targets were met or adjusted accordingly.
5. Capture and share learning – sharing of lessons learnt and suggestions for best practices.

These values measure the range of ecosystem services crucial for human well-being. The five-step process ensures the Cederberg Complex adequately address and define their actions, threats and identify values while enabling management to measure progress and success over time (CapeNature, 2019b:24; CMP, 2013:5).

Conclusively, the SAM serves as an approach to ensure good governance when compiling a management plan ultimately to benefit the Cederberg Complex holistically. Its effectiveness is reliant on constant monitoring and evaluation, and adaptability, and is, therefore, an excellent example of adaptive governance in practice.

Accordingly, the SAM agrees with the adaptive governance research presented in chapter two as it requires a robust understanding of the changes confronting the Cederberg Complex's landscape and follows a knowledge-centred approach to governing the ecological complexities (Schultz *et al.,* 2015: 7369). Echoed in both the adaptive governance theory and the researcher's definition of governance (as discussed in chapter two), SAM follows a collective and participatory process by engaging with smaller and more local stakeholders across the conservation value chain (be it governmental sector, civil society, private sector, or academic sectors) to build towards a strategic vision, address past failures and contribute towards more informed management decision-making (Gunderson *et al.*, 2016:354; researcher synthesis).

Furthermore, SAM complies with good environmental governance principles as it is equipped with the correct tool to ensure adjustment and decisions are made effectively, efficiently and responsively. The approach is based on transparency and accountability when defining strategic objectives and milestones (CMP, 2013:9). Transparency characterises the behaviour and decisions during stakeholder engagement and ultimately forms a basis for a well-structured evaluation approach (CMP, 2013:14).

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It is highly reliant on the participation of core stakeholders and influence groups and engages with them to ensure informed decision-making, accountability to laws and governing frameworks. In conclusion, the approach is performance-driven requiring participation, knowledge dissemination, effectiveness, efficiency and accountability to be executed sustainably.

6.2.2.2. Management Effectiveness Tracking Tool (METT)

The National Department of Environmental Affairs adapted the Management Effectiveness Tracking Tool (METT) and applied it to South African conditions (CapeNature, 2019b:25). Although the tool is developed to assess the management effectiveness of the protected area at a strategic level, it does not replace the monitoring and evaluation of specifics. On the contrary, the METT assessment is informed by the results of fine-scale monitoring (CapeNature, 2019b:25).

CapeNature utilises the METT tool to measure ecosystem health. Based on verifiable data, the mechanism monitors and evaluates the implementation levels, values status and strategy effectiveness of the protected area's plan (CapeNature, 2019b:25). The results are contributing to the Western Cape State of Biodiversity Report each five-year cycle and CapeNature management reports on the progress on an annual basis by means of the Performance Management System. This ensures dedicated accountability by merging the management plans with individual performance agreements. The national standard for management effectiveness assessment has been set at 68 per cent (CapeNature, 2015:27). Consequentially, the assessment is performance-based, assessing the responsiveness, effectiveness and strategic vision by identifying shortcomings when auditing the preceding METT assessment.

For the financial year of 2014/2015, CapeNature achieved a score of 84 per cent (measured on METT version 2) (CapeNature, 2015:27). However, since the implementation of the third METT version during financial year 2015/2016, the percentage of state-managed protected areas achieved a lower score of 74 per cent (CapeNature, 2019d:24). For the 2016/17 reporting period, CapeNature strategically committed to conducting biennial METT assessments (Du Plessis, 2019; CapeNature, 2019a:31). For the 2017/2018 financial year, CapeNature continued with implementing their biennial assessment and achieved a score of 94 per cent.

The biennial evaluation of the sites resulted in a noticeable improvement in the scores, but equally important is an improved understanding of the protected area context by management. Ultimately this will translate in the implementation of a more intensely planned action plan for the majority of

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the protected area managed by the entity (CapeNature, 2019d:49). For this period, CapeNature achieved all predetermined targets set for action plans:

Table 6. 1: Strategic Objectives and METT Scores (CapeNature, 2019a:32)

Performance Indicator	Actual achievement 2017/2018	Planned Target 2018/2019	Actual achievement 2018/2019	Comment on deviation
METT assessment score (national standard 67%).	74%	N/A	94%	N/A
Number of communities engaged to derive socio-economic benefit	64%	60%	81%	Over-achievement on Full Time Equivalents created – more communities were engaged.
Number of criminal enforcement actions taken for non-compliance with NEM legislation	143	80	138	The indicator is demand driven – more criminal enforcement actions were encountered than anticipated.
METT action plans for Complexes with a score below 67%	N/A	100%	100%	None
Number of work opportunities created through environmental programmes	1893	1000	2797	Overachievement due to additional funding allocated to the programme.
Number of SMMEs used in environmental programmes implemented	21	15	20	Overachievement due to additional funding allocated to the programme
Number of environmental awareness activities conducted	161	150	189	Growing interests from schools and ad hoc requests to support and participate in

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				environmental days/events.
Number of environmental stakeholder capacity building interventions	80	80	93	Increase in interaction with CapeNature, resulting in additional capacity building sessions.
Number of protected area management plans approved in financial period.	N/A	3	3	None

In conclusion, as the METT is an international tool used to measure protected area effectiveness, consequently there is a certain amount of credibility associated adhering to its norms and standards. Respectfully it keeps CapeNature accountable and motivated to achieve set goals. By allowing the METT to be audited every two years, it allows for more time to ensure alignment and achieving goals. The METT evaluation calls for a detailed action plan to be developed to address the shortcomings. To ensure further accountability, the action plans will be monitored and evaluated monthly to ensure challenges are addressed promptly (CapeNature, 2019b:26; Du Plessis, 2019). Some of the actions are assigned to specific persons and the plan keeps them accountable to achieve the actions

However, a challenge identified with the METT is that it is corporate action-focused. It views the actions and targets of CapeNature's protected areas holistically. It is, therefore, important that all CapeNature protected areas work together towards achieving and upholding a high effectiveness rating. The true power of the tool lies in not only its strategic vision but rather its continuous accountability and transparency and stakeholder participation needs to perform accordingly and turning goals into visible outcomes.

6.2.2.3. Performance Agreement

CapeNature's second approach to instil good environmental governance is by fully integrating it into staff members' job specifications and performance agreements. Job descriptions are complete with applicable legislation, policies and CapeNature principles to be adhered to. To further ensure accountability, effectiveness and responsiveness, performance reviews are conducted twice a year (Du Plessis, 2019).

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Every year an integrated work plan is consolidated with a staff member's Annual Plan of Operations (APO), a schedule indicating what is required to happen during the year. The plan is reviewed and discussed with appropriate line managers and relevant departments to ensure the set targets can be accomplished, ensure accuracy and effectiveness (Du Plessis, 2019; CapeNature, 2019b:25; Ackhurst, 2020).

Each year towards the end of the third quarter (around September), the members start planning for the next financial year. This planning includes developing new performance- and action targets complete with a budget to be reviewed and adjusted accordingly (Du Plessis, 2019). During the following March, the reviewed and approved APO and performance agreements are actioned for the next financial year.

Essentially the cyclical review process ensures accountability and transparency, strategic direction and performance. The robustness of this process lies in its collaborative approach to ensure strategic vision and success. It allows for continuous evaluation and engagement with line managers and other relevant departments to ensure actions are taken and targets are achieved.

6.2.2.4. Good environmental Governance success story – The Cederberg Conservancy

The Cederberg Complex is also home to a small collaborative unit, the Cederberg Conservancy. Constituted in 1997, the Cederberg Conservancy was designed as a voluntary agreement between private landowners and like-minded stakeholders who manage their land in a sustainable manner (Cederberg Conservancy, 2016; Cederberg Private Cellar, 2016). Currently, it consists of 19 private properties in the central Cederberg as well as CapeNature and supported by the Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (DAFF) (Cederberg Private Cellar, 2016).

The Conservancy is home to 84 800 ha of provincial land and 109 913 ha land owned by private owners. This area is mostly used for tourism and agricultural purposes. Altogether, the area comprises of 194 713 ha and less than 10 per cent of this land is 'used by man' (Cederberg Private Cellar, 2016). Echoing the collaborative governance theory (as discussed in chapter two), the Cederberg Conservancy functions collaboratively with CapeNature and the DAFF to address challenges, special projects and tourism activities. The stakeholders engage by formally structured meetings every three months to discuss their projects, action plans, timeline and budget (Cederberg Private Cellar, 2016; Burger, 2019). According to Burger, the Conservancy is built on transparency, accountability and

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partnership allowing for collective decision-making ensuring their conservation goals are achieved. Currently, the Conservancy is chaired by Mr J Nieuwoudt (Burger, 2019).

The Conservancy forms part of CapeNature's integrated tourism management and marketing team. Accordingly, it sells CapeNature's permits allowing visitor's access to areas only accessible by a locked gate such as Stadsaal Cave, Truitjieskraal, Maltese Cross and Wolfberg Arch. The Conservancy also launched other conservational projects such as the Biodiversity and Wine Initiative, the Cape Leopard Trust, and the drive for Ceder Tree restoration. The Conservancy also hosts annual Open Days to raise environmental awareness and collect data for CapeNature's State of Biodiversity Programme (Cederberg Conservancy, 2016).

The conservancy association is an excellent example of collaborative governance serving the Cederberg Complex. As explored in chapter two, the Cederberg Conservancy adheres to the collaborative governance theory by: (1) engaging with public and non-state agencies (private landowners, CapeNature and DAFF); (2) addressing public environmental management needs of their fellow farmers in the Cederberg Wilderness; (3) implementing effective communication and collective decision-making; and (4) enforcing formal management structures and being managed by a chairperson (O'Boyle & Shilbury, 2018:334; Ansell & Gash, 2007:544; Burger, 2019).

Although the Conservancy is only active in a small area located in the southern parts of the Complex, the members (comprising of CapeNature and DAFF representatives as well) allow for effective communication and support structure to farmers in the Cederberg Wilderness (Burger, 2019). According to the researcher, it would be recommended to explore such a represented group in both the Hexberg State Forest and Matjies River Nature Reserve.

6.2.3. (Eco)tourism Development in the Cederberg Complex

As a Word Heritage Site, the Cederberg Complex aims to stimulate community engagement and partnerships, endorse heritage and ecotourism activities and guard the biodiversity for everyone's benefit (CapeNature, 2019b:30). To address the development of ecotourism in the Complex with strategic intent and according to legislation the West Coast District Municipality, Cederberg Local Municipality and CapeNature were consulted.

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6.2.3.1. Ecotourism Development by the West Coast District Municipality

The West Coast District Municipality (WCDM) is the governing authority of five category B-municipalities – Bergrivier, Matzkikama, Saldanha Bay, Swartland and the Cederberg Local Municipality. Stipulated by the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act (117 of 1998: Section 84 (1)(m)), the District Municipality is responsible to promote local tourism in their area of authority (WCDM, 2017:6; RSA, 1998b:58). Accordingly, tourism within the WCDM is governed by the Regional Tourism Organisation (RTO). The RTO greatly contributed towards destination marketing and tourism development by connecting to local tourism organisations (LTOs) of the B-municipality, private sector and civil society (Abrahams, 2020a; Abrahams, 2020b WCDM, 2018:5). This model can be viewed on Addendum F.

Currently the RTOs consist of the relevant LTO, the WCDM, Cape West Coast Biosphere, WESGRO and CapeNature. The managing committees meet twice a year to discuss tourism development and marketing issues and three-times a year to address management objectives (Abrahams, 2020a). To ensure good governance, the committee's executive strategy and strategic goals are managed by a Service Delivery Budget Implementation Plan (SDBIP) and reviewed annually. To ensure engagement at grassroots, the model also includes the local tourism associations (LTAs), as explained on Addendum F (Abrahams, 2020b).

This is a primary example of decentralised environmental governance applied to the development of local tourism by the National Department of Tourism within the West Coast District Municipality, as explored in section 2.4. Accordingly, the RTO and LTO address the tourism challenges faced on the lower-level administration. As suggested by the decentralised environmental governance theory, the RTO, LTO and LTA allow for more participation at a grassroots level by enabling local tourism organisations to unlock more value in their area (researcher synthesis; Lemos & Agrawal, 2006:302; Abrahams, 2020b).

According to Abrahams, the vision for the District Municipality is to develop the West Coast District into a leading sustainable tourism economy (Abrahams, 2020a; WCDM, 2018:7). Based on their ecological, agricultural and cultural resources the Municipality aims to utilise local tourism activities and destinations as tools to stimulate economic growth, employment opportunities and upskill its residents. This is reflected in the WCDM's second strategic objective – *to pursue economic growth and stimulate job creation* as captured it its IDP (WCDM, 2017:43).

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To ensure accountability, the goals are assigned with Key Performance Indicators (KPIs) and monitored as captured by the Service Delivery and Budget Implementation Plan (SDBIP) (Abrahams, 2020a; WCDM, 2019:311). The KPI's status and measurement scheme are reflected in table 6.2. Respectively, the performance of the KPIs set out to address the development of economic growth and job creation in the WCDM is reflected in table 6.3.

Table 6. 2: SDBIP measurement status (WCDM, 2019:311).

Status	Colour	Description
KPI Not Yet Measured		Not set targets or actuals
KPI Not Met		0% > Actual/Target < 75%
KPI Almost Met		75% > Actual/Target < 100%
KPI Met		Actual/Target = 100%
KPI Well Met		100% > Actual/Target < 150%
KPI Extremely Well Met		Actual/Target < 150%

Table 6.3: Performance of Strategic Objective 2 - To pursue economic growth and facilitation of job opportunities (WCDM, 2019:318).

KPI	Unit of Measure	Target	Actual Performance	Status
Create FTEs through expenditure with the EPWD job creation by 30 June 2019.	Number of FTEs created by 30 June 2019.	30	62.17	
Host 8 sessions to promote skills development and support the Tourism SMME business sectors by 30 June 2019.	Number of sessions hosted	8	8	
Carry out 24 tourism promotional activities by 30 June 2019	Number of activities carried out	32	65	

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Assist 12 Tourism BEE entrepreneurs with starting and growing businesses e.g. research, business plans and skills development by 30 June 2019	Number of Tourism BEE entrepreneurs assisted	12	11	
Create temporary job opportunities with man days paid through projects by 30 June 2019	Number of man day paid	1200	7418	
Update the SDF and submit to council by 31 March 2019	Updated SDF submitted to Council by 31 March 2019	New performance Indicator for 2018/19. No comparative audited results available.	New performance Indicator for 2018/19. No comparative audited results available.	

The WCDM performed well, addressing all but one KPI. According to Abrahams (2020a), tourism manager at the WCDP, the District's performance was greatly motivated by their set vision to develop the West Coast District into a sustainable tourism economy (WCDM, 2018:7).

In support of their new vision and to stimulate economic growth and environmental awareness, the WCDM developed its #GoGreenWeskus initiative and the Responsible Tourism Outreach conference (Abrahams, 2020a). Hosted annually, the conference creates a unique opportunity (especially for SMMEs) to engage with key industry stakeholders and cultivate economic growth. The focus of the Outreach is to: (1) promote social wellbeing, (2) stimulate local economic development, and (3) increase environmental awareness by sharing best practices (Abrahams, 2020a; West Coast Responsible Tourism Conference, 2015). Accordingly, the 2019 Conference facilitated the growth and business development of 12 SMMEs as reflected in table 6.3 (WCDM, 2019:8).

Although all the tourism activities functioning under the RTO, LTO, and LTAs are not purely limited to the ecotourism sphere necessarily, their intentions are in line with some of the ecotourism building

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blocks. As captured by the District Municipality's second strategic objective (to pursue economic growth and stimulate local job creation), echoed in the KPIs, and supported by the RTO and LTOs, the activities are designed to be locally beneficial and are in agreement with the fourth building block of ecotourism (see section 3.2) (researchers synthesis; Abrahams, 2020b). This close collaboration with the local tourism role-players not only empowers the indigenous community to generate financial benefit but to some extent channel the majority of the tourists' expenditure to the local community (researchers synthesis; Wight, cited in Holden, 2008:236; TIES, 2015).

Likewise, the #GoGreenWeskus initiative and responsible tourism outreach conferences are key examples of stimulating environmental awareness and so addressing the third building block of ecotourism (environmental education as explored in section 3.2). Although the goal of these initiatives is to promote the district municipality as a nature-based tourism destination, it goes beyond that by creating a platform to develop participant's awareness, knowledge and appreciation for nature (researchers synthesis; Crabtree, cited in Newsome *et al.*, 2013:20). It allows participants to view the natural environment as an ecosystem holistically while being educated on the area's natural and cultural history.

6.2.3.2. Cederberg Local Municipality

As explained by the WCDM, the Cederberg Local Municipality forms part of the local tourism organisations (LTO) governing tourism together with the Cederberg Complex (Abrahams, 2020b). Appropriately, the Cederberg Local Municipality connects with local tourism association (LTAs) – entities responsible for tourism development in a specific town (WCDM, 2018:7; Abrahams, 2020b). As explained in the previous section, this is in alignment with the decentralised environmental governance approach, connecting the to the community at grassroots (see addendum F for reference). According to Mercuur (2019), the Cederberg Local Municipality is a facilitator for collaborative development. However, the bigger challenge is to successfully coordinate the integration of SMMEs in the local and regional tourism industry.

In support of tourism ecotourism development, the Cederberg Local Municipality lists the following key strategic objectives (Cederberg Local Municipality, 2017a:166). Although the strategic objectives are currently not governed by KPIs it creates an opportunity to develop and coordinate regional tourism development in the Cederberg Local Municipality:

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1. Tourism Development: to unlock the tourism potential of the Cederberg by promoting both old and new tourism activities that will maximise income and ultimately contribute towards local economic development.
2. Tourism Transformation: to promote tourism development at grassroots, benefitting all citizens (especially the previously disadvantaged individuals).
3. Tourism Marketing: to brand the Cederberg as a year-round destination for cultural and outdoor tourism activities.
4. Tourism Funding: to develop a robust sustainable tourism funding model to reinforce strategic objectives 1, 2 and 3.
5. Tourism Monitoring and Evaluation: to develop a robust monitoring and evaluation system to track the performance and execution of tourism activities (Cederberg Local Municipality, 2017a:166).

Although, the five goals are not yet fully integrated in the Municipality's IDP's and assigned specific KPI's to ensure good governance, they are in agreement with some of the ecotourism building blocks as they are focussed on sustaining the ecological integrity of the Cederberg Complex, ensuring activities are locally beneficial at grassroots and addressing the tourists' satisfaction. Echoed in these five strategic tourism goals, the Cederberg Local Municipality aims to stimulate better local economic development. Accordingly, the fourth strategic goal's performance is illustrated in table 6.4. (Cederberg Local Municipality, 2019:56).

Table 6.4: Performance of Strategic Objective 4 - Facilitate, expand and nurture sustainable economic growth and eradicate poverty (Cederberg Local Municipality, 2019:56).

KPI	Unit of Measurement	Target	Actual performance	Status
Spend 90% of the approved project budget to assist the elderly with transport (Graafwater to Canwilliam) by 30 June 2019.	Percentage of budget spent.	90%	93.97%	
Establish a Business Development Forum with organised business for the	Business Development Forum established.	1	1	

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municipal area by 30 June 2019.				
Conduct training initiatives with SMMEs during the 2018/19 financial year.	Number of training initiatives conducted.	4	3	
Develop an Investment Incentives Policy and submit to Council by 31 March 2019.	Investment Incentives Policy submitted to Council.	1	0	
Conduct an Investment Promotion Indaba by 30 June 2019.	Investment Promotion Indaba conducted.	1	0	
Develop an Investment Promotion Action Plan and Submit to Council by 30 June 2019.	Investment Promotion Action Plan submitted to Council.	1	1	
Develop a new Tourism Strategy for Cederberg municipal area and submit to Council by 30 June 2019.	Tourism Strategy submitted to Council.	1	0	
Create 200 job opportunities in terms of EPWP by 30 June 2019.	Number of job opportunities created in terms of EPWP.	200	200	

Although the Cederberg Local Municipality has not fully developed and assigned to KPS's, the listed goals are intended to stimulate local economic growth and is therefore in line with the fourth ecotourism building black – to be locally beneficial (see section 3.3).

6.2.3.3. CapeNature

Like many other conservation agencies, CapeNature utilises ecotourism as a tool to unlock economic and conservational value for protected areas (Mathews, 2019). When looking at tourism through the CapeNature lens, it is specifically designed for domestic (South African) clientele and would struggle to match the international expectations set by academic literature (Mathews, 2019). Rather, CapeNature views tourism as an activity utilised to support conservation by promoting equal access and so placing the ecology at the centre of all activities as the main attraction.

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Traditionally, sustainability is built on the triangular relationship between the social, economic and natural spheres. However, as explored in chapter 3, applying a sustainable filter to the tourism industry it not that simple. It triggers a valuable question: *Where does the balance lie?* CapeNature's focus will remain on protecting and conserving nature for a sustainable future (as per their vision statement) (CapeNature, 2019b:1). With the environmental sphere as the key focus, CapeNature governs tourism activities with a multipronged approach: (1) to promote conservation of the unique heritage resources of the Western Cape; (2) to generate an income; and (3) to stimulate tourism satisfaction. CapeNature is hereby breaking away from traditional single-use activities to address industry needs and moving towards a more governance-oriented approach by implementing multi-purpose activities, working across traditional mandates.

According to the Management Plan, CapeNature's supports the development of sustainable tourism-based livelihoods in partnership with various role players to enrich local economic development and social upliftment (CapeNature, 2019b:140). Similar to the IDP's KPI, the Cederberg Management Plan measure its performance based on Key Ecological Attribute (KEA) ratings of the area. The Cederberg Complex identified key ecological attributes of its natural values taking the size, condition and landscape context into account. Accordingly, any attributes and indicators relating to cultural and historical values, as well as human well-being were measured in terms of the present condition of assets, knowledge or access (CapeNature, 2019b:115).

Once the condition has been captured, indicators will determine the route to measure its viability. Each indicator is measured and rated according to the best available information and presented with a status: Poor, Fair, Good, or Very Good (see table 6.5). Ultimately the results from viability assessments sketch a desired future condition as well as measurable goals for each key attribute (CapeNature, 2019b:115).

CapeNature aims to support local economic development and upliftment through partnerships and sustainable tourism initiatives (CapeNature, 2019b:140). This target is measured by two KEAs: (1) tourism-based job opportunities and (2) skills development opportunities as illustrated in table 5.6. The Cederberg Complex is struggling to deliver tourism-based job opportunities on a large scale. Currently, CapeNature only provides 30-39 Full Time Equivalents (FTE) job opportunities and one SMME contract (CapeNature, 2019b:142). Accordingly, skills development opportunities lack in performance as the training CapeNature's provided was limited to the contracted employees.

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These results echo the call for a more collaborative approach to address not only ecotourism, but also local economic development as mentioned by Mercuur from Cederberg Local Municipality (Mercuur, 2019). It also questions the implementation capacity of the governing authority as mentioned by the stated interviewed Cederberg community members. Thus, to ensure CapeNature achieve its conservational mandate as well as set goals, would require additional human capacity as supported by the Management Plan (Nieuwoudt, 2019; Burger, 2019; Fortuin, 2019; Kruger, 2019; CapeNature, 2019b:109). By stimulating more growth for FTE jobs will not only result in more capacity in servicing the Complex but could also alleviate some of the capacity constraints experienced by permanent staff members and allow CapeNature to play a more enabling and governing role.

Table 6. 5: Descriptions for viability ratings used in the Open Standards as part of the Cederberg Complex planning process (CapeNature, 2019b:114).

Very Good *Optimal integrity*	The factor is functioning at desired status that requires little human intervention.
Good *Minimum integrity*	The factor is functioning within an acceptable range of variation; it requires some human intervention.
Fair *Vulnerable*	The factor lies outside its acceptable range of variation and requires human intervention. If unchecked, the value will be vulnerable to serious degradation.
Poor *Imminent Loss*	Allowing the factor to remain in this condition for an extended period will make restoration or preventing extirpation practically impossible.
Not Related	There is insufficient information to determine a trend.

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Table 6. 6: Key Performance Indicators addressing ecotourism-related aspects in the Cederberg Complex (CapeNature, 2019b:142)

KEA	Indicator	POOR	FAIR	GOOD	VERY GOOD	Current Rating	Desired Rating
Tourism-based job opportunities	Number of FTE jobs per annum	<30 FTE job opportunities	30-39 FTE job opportunities	40-49 FTE job opportunities	>59 FTE job opportunities	Good	Very Good
Tourism-based job opportunities	Number of SMMEs contracts per annum	No SMME contracts	1-2 SMME contracts	3-4 SMME contracts	>4 SMME contracts	Fair	Good
Skills development opportunities	Number of community members attending capacity & skills development intervention per annum	None	32	75 (5 communities x 15 people x 1 intervention)	150 (5 communities x 15 people x 2 interventions)	Poor	Good

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6.2.4. Challenges of implementing ecotourism activities in the Cederberg Complex

Based on the researcher's findings and engagement with key stakeholders consisting of CapeNature, Cederberg Local Municipality, WCDM, Cederberg Tourism, Cederberg Conservancy and private landowners, the following main challenges were identified hindering the implementation of well-governed ecotourism activities in the Cederberg Complex: (1) illegal access, (2) human resource constraints, (3) lack of environmental awareness; and (4) lack of collaboration.

1. Illegal access:

Unlike the Kruger National Park (or various other National Parks), the Cederberg Complex is intertwined with public spaces and governed with limited gated actively monitoring visitors' access. Consequently, various routes provide easy passage to the Complex without registering at CapeNature's offices or other private landowners. Although many gates are access-controlled and fitted with combination locks and only allowing those legally permitted to enter the protected area with the security code, this process is not effective (Du Plessis, 2019).

According to Du Plessis, a few cased has been reported where hikers failed to close the access gates behind them, allowing the opportunity for other civilians to enter illegally (i.e. without permits). Yet, cases were also reported where civilians forced an entrance and damaged the gates by either cutting the fences or breaking the gates (Du Plessis, 2019).

Other cases were reported by private landowners (Kruger, 2019; Burger, 2019), where civilians entered their private land without consent. Not only were these illegal visitors trespassing, but many times they strayed from the marked paths to avoid discovery (Kruger, 2019; Burger, 2019). Ultimately, these activities resulted in ecological damage and fragmentation, vandalism, violation of NEM:PAA Section 46 (1), and affected CapeNature and the private landowner's bottom line (RSA, 2003a).

Furthermore, such illegal activities and the ecological damage it causes is testing the ecological sustainability of ecotourism (also referred to as the second building block of ecotourism, as discussed in section 3.3). As explained, ecotourism activities are dependent on the health and condition of natural surroundings. Should the illegal access and associated misconduct such as straying of routes and causing stress on already fragile ecosystems continue, it may result in even greater degradation to the point that tourism activities are no longer attracted to it.

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As illustrated by figure 6.2 and 6.3, CapeNature's income is greatly dependant on entry fees and the purchase of permits. Accordingly, if executed properly, these funds could have greatly contributed towards to expansion tourism activities in the Complex and avoided the unintended rehabilitation of fragile ecological sites (CapeNature, 2009b:113; Du Plessis, 2019; Burger, 2019; Kruger, 2019).

2. Human Resources Constraints:

Several of the interviewed private landowners agreed that CapeNature, the WCDM, and Cederberg Local Municipality are functioning under capacity with regards to implementing tourism activities and unlocking social benefits in the Cederberg Complex (Nieuwoudt, 2019; Burger, 2019; Fortuin, 2019). Although tourism activities are thriving in certain parts of the complex, the smaller settlements towards the south-east of the Complex are struggling.

During the interviews, a need has been identified for an increase in support and capacity to serve the area with conservational need such as implementing fire breaks in the area, tourism development and social-economic development (Nieuwoudt, 2019; Burger, 2019; Fortuin, 2019). Burger, suggests building on the social-capital of the smaller communities and ultimately earning their trust. Only then will collaboration truly take place (Burger, 2019).

Currently, the Cederberg Complex is supported by 17 permanent CapeNature staff members operational at Algeria, Kliphuis and Matjies River. Although they are supported by 37 FTE and their contracts are funded by the EPWP, additional capacity would greatly assist to, (1) fulfil their conservation mandate, and (2) enable governing authorities to actively collaborate with communal networks such as the Cederberg Conservancy, Rocklands Partnership and the Cederberg Heritage Route.

3. Lack of Environmental Awareness:

As explored in section 6.2.3, CapeNature, the Cederberg Local Municipality and West Coast District Municipality all utilise (eco)tourism development as vehicles to introduce natural features to the marketplace, thereby turning guests' visits into an educative nature-based experience while stimulating economic development. As explored in section 3.3, the educational facet of ecotourism and stimulation of environmental awareness is crucial to the existence of ecotourism and what distinguishes it from other tourism forms. However, supported by Burger (2019) and Mathews (2019), in many cases, there is a misconception about what ecotourism means and how the market thinks it should be implemented in the Cederberg Complex (Burger, 2019 & Mathews, 2019).

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Accordingly, CapeNature does not sell accommodation, but rather sells access to a natural feature and builds accommodation to host the tourists and connect them with nature. However, as explored in chapter two, successful implementation requires precision and collaboration. CapeNature, therefore, considers the area's zoning and sensitivities (as stipulated in the Management Plan), as well as relevant legislation (especially the NEMA). Likewise, Driehoek, Pakhuis and Jamaka, offer humble accommodation specifically curated to showcase the surrounding beauty of the Cederberg Complex and with minimal luxuries and technological distractions (Burger, 2019; Kruger, 2019; Nieuwoudt, 2019).

However, due to a lack of environmental awareness, this ideology does not always result in perfect execution. On the contrary, at Algeria campsite cases were reported where tourists wasted valuable water by showering for lengthy periods, deliberately ignoring the visible information and warning signs during the 2018 provincial drought (Du Plessis, 2019; Mathews, 2019). Likewise, Kruger (2019) shared incidences where tourists were caught littering or strayed from allocated routes causing fragmentation and ecological damage to already fragile environments. Nieuwoudt (2019) shared a horrific story of sewage systems polluting his land and the nearest water source resulting in a dramatic increase of mosquito, ultimately not only inconveniencing this guest and polluting the water.

Consequently, there is a great need to improve and develop the public's environmental awareness and environmental education. Therefore, participants need to be more environmentally aware of the sensitive ecosystems and the impact and consequences of their actions (Du Plessis, 2019; Mathews, 2019; Kruger, 2019). This entails a change in perception and paradigm shift regarding the environmental system, its functionally and importance. This is crucial as the facilitation of environmental education and awareness is fundamental to the meaning of ecotourism and regarded as its third building block (as explored in section 3.3). As expressed, ecotourism allows for continuous learning by all participatory parties (local communities, governing authorities, voluntary organisations, tourists, and industry). This allows ecotourism participants to see and understand the natural environment holistically and as part of a bigger system while expanding their knowledge and a deep appreciation for nature (Newsome et al.,2013:20; Honey, 1992:22).

4. Lack of Collaboration:

The activities in the Cederberg Complex are already governed in a collaborative approach amongst the government institutions (CapeNature and so DEAD&DP, WCDM and the Cederberg Local Municipality) and other private-public entities (such as the Rockland Partnership and the Cederberg

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Conservancy), nonetheless, the conflict of interests and mandates are ever-present (Nieuwoudt, 2019; Burger, 2019). Ultimately, one of the biggest challenges hindering successful ecotourism development in the Complex is the lack of collaboration and occasional top-down management including silo-mentality instilled by governmental institutions (Mathews, 2019; Nieuwoudt, 2019; Abrahams, 2020a).

This lack of collaboration is partly due to political conflict in communities and governing authorities as well as a lack of holistic vision and environmental systems-thinking (Nieuwoudt, 2019). Although the governing authorities are acting within the law, their actions frequently result in unintended consequences at the cost and discomfort of its community members and private landowners (Nieuwoudt, 2019; Burger, 2019; Abrahams, 2020a).

Sustainable tourism is a multidimensional concept and cannot solely be defined by the balance of social, economic, and environmental spheres (as explained in section 3.2.2). Rather sustainable tourism is faced with complexity. Characterised by its resilience, sustainable tourism not only bridges various disciplines such as psychology, anthropology, geology and economics, but recognises the importance of community engagement, the sharing knowledge, and the long-term management of natural resources (researcher synthesis; Fennell, 2003:1). Likewise, as expressed in chapter 2, collaboration is key to successfully address these complexities. Consequently, it requires a mutual focus amongst various stakeholder and role-players (Muller, 2009:83). The successful implementation of ecotourism can, therefore, be considered a collaborative art that requires active collaboration reaching beyond the political parties and governing authorities.

In summary, while the four challenges exist in their own right, they are also mutually reinforcing and interdependent. Subsequently, although entering nature reserves illegally could be prompted by a participant's own selfish needs, the actions may also be motivated by the lack of environmental awareness and a participant being environmentally uneducated. Likewise, human capacity constraints may result in a lack of governance to control the area creating an opportunity for unauthorised activities. However, the overarching issue hindering the implementation of good governed ecotourism in the Cederberg Complex is the lack of collaboration and so collaborative governance.

Collaboration, actioned by participation and consensus orientation, is key to good governance as identified by the UNDP's five good governance principles (see table 2.1). Accordingly, collaboration

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should welcome capacity building and community members to voice their concerns during decision-making processes.

6.2.5. Success stories – Good environmental governed ecotourism activities

During the researcher's engagement with the aforementioned stakeholders, and supported by extensive literature review, two entities were identified for successfully implementing ecotourism and thereby achieving the sixth research objective. Both entities are governed in a collaborative approach and welcome input and support from other stakeholders. However, they are not without their challenges. Rather, they are references as success stories for correctly implementing and embodying the good environmental governance and ecotourism theories as explored in chapters 2 and 3.

6.2.5.1. Rocklands - an international bouldering destination

Recently bouldering, a sub-sport of rock-climbing, has been making waves in the Cederberg Complex. Unlike traditional rock-climbing where climbers rely on ropes or other climbing protection to prevent serious injuries, bouldering is more free-climbing focused. Boulderers are therefore equipped with their chalk bag, special climbing shoes and strategically placed foam mattresses below their climb (Lawson, 2011; Van der Merwe & Joubert, 2014:229).

Practised as early as the 1900s, bouldering was first seen as a training activity for bigger climbs in the Alps and was usually practised in areas home to clusters of boulders connected by trails. During a session, the boulderer would identify a project (specific climb) and spend hours to a full day on mastering the problem (Lawson, 2011). Bouldering is characterised by shorter technical climbs which are only a few metres from the ground (The Cederberg Ridge, 2018).

South African Rocklands (located in the northern parts of the Cederberg Complex) has become one of the world's top five destinations for bouldering (Van der Merwe & Joubert, 2014:230; Mercuur, 2019; Potgieter, 2019; Kruger, 2019). Attracting climbers and boulderers from across the world, the Rocklands, located in the Cederberg, is home to endless boulders and rock formations to be explored, spanning more than 20 square kilometres (Lawson, 2011; Kruger, 2019).

As discussed in chapter 3, while adventure tourism, as a nature-based tourism activity, is earmarked for its educative and appreciative relationship with nature, it is also characterised by risk, physical exaltation and skill (Weaver, 2001b:74). Often these activities are associated with ecotourism and could add value to the development of the sport-cultural heritage (Van der Merwe & Joubert,

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2014:232). However, this overlap between ecotourism and adventure tourism is rather small and limited to ecotourists who are willing to engage with a 'harder' and rather limited range of ecotourism activities or adventure tourists willingness to participate in 'softer' and nature-based tourism activities (Weaver, 2001b:75).

This is a typical case of where a very niche tourism market has grown within the South African context and is actively adding value to the local tourism industry. The benefit of these activities is that the tourist's experience is directly related to the quality and condition of the natural boulders. Therefore, the type of tourist participating in bouldering and rock-climbing activities in a natural environment is more conscious of his / her impact on the surroundings (Kruger, 2019).

According to Caber and Albayrak (20116:82), rock climbing and bouldering allows for geographic expansion of sustainable growth of tourism activities. Although these activities are not yet well documented or researched within the academic literature, it is recommended. As bouldering and rock-climbing require a deep connection to the rock formations, it is no surprise to find that the natural environment and "physical setting" is identified as the primary motivation for practitioners (Caber & Albayrak, 2016:82). Therefore, conservation and preserving the natural aesthetics and unique characteristics of the surrounding are of great importance.

Good Environmental Governance in the Rocklands

To ensure bouldering activities are sustainably managed and governed well (i.e. permits are issued, and gate access is correctly captured), a robust and collaboratively governed strategy is required. The establishment of the Rocklands Partnership played a pivotal part in addressing some of these concerns. It consists of the four private landowners entertaining the bouldering activities in the northern Rocklands of the Cederberg (De Pakhuis, Agterpakhuis Properties, Klein Fontein and Traveller's Rest) as well as a dedicated CapeNature member (Kruger, 2019).

As explored in the public-private partnership theory (see section 2.5.3), the Rocklands Partnership follow agreed "rules" by dividing responsibilities to better serve the clients and improve output efficiency (Cheng et al., 2016:1242). Accordingly, this PPP meets quarterly to discuss and monitor their goals, projects, and review their finances and performance. These actions are managed with strategic intent, performance-driven, ruled by accountability and transparency, and are in line with the good governance principles identified by the UNDP (see table 2.1).

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According to Kruger (2019), the chair of the Rocklands Partnership and owner of De Pakhuis farm, their mission is to:

- maintain and clear the walkways and to allow easy access to the boulders;
- ensure the conservation and protection of the ecology surrounding the boulders as well as the boulders itself;
- manage basic restroom services in the area; and
- share knowledge and educate participants about the fragile surroundings and to enhance their environmental awareness (Kruger, 2019).

The partnership plays a vital role in managing and allocating permits allowing to access the area as well as the signing of indemnity forms for boulderers (Kruger, 2019; Rocklands Association for Development (RAD), (n.d.)). To ensure good governance, landowners often execute permit inspections removing unpermitted climbers from the area.

The partnership has a strong relationship with Rocklands Association for Development (RAD), and civil society-driven, non-profit organisations (NPO) dedicated to empowering the local communities within the Rocklands area. Represented by conservationists, climbers and community members, RAD's objective is to promote community involvement and educate the need for ecological conservation (RAD, n.d).

Implementation Challenges – next steps

The niche market indicates great annual growth with a total of more than 6oo entrants registered at De Pakhuis during the five-months of the climbing season. However, the sport is still relatively new to the Cederberg Complex, and its environmental footprint is yet undetermined (Van der Merwe & Joubert, 2014:230; Kruger, 2019). Therefore, the researcher suggests performing extensive research on the area to identify trigger points, the area's carry capacity, and the long-term environmental impact.

Based on the researcher's engagement with Kruger (and supported by Du Plessis), the Cederberg Complex is confronted with unregulated access control (Du Plessis, 2019; Kruger, 2019). According to Van der Merwe and Joubert, during 2014, an estimated one-third of all climbers within the Rocklands area accessed without adequate climbing permits (Van der Merwe & Joubert, 2014:230). To address this issue, especially during the peak season (May - September), Kruger appointed a ranger to oversee this land by monitoring the climber's permits, and behaviour and to assist with general guidance

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queries (Kruger, 2019). Kruger is confident that this implementation resulted in the climber's accountability and trust in the managing team as well as the visitors (Kruger, 2019).

6.2.5.2. Cederberg Heritage Route

Nestled in the heart of the Cederberg mountains, the Cederberg Heritage Route (CHR) offers a collection of six community-based walking trails, showcasing the beauty of the Cederberg Wilderness. Built on the foundation of local economic development and hiking activities, it allows for community members to offer accommodation, catering and guiding services (CapeNature, 2019c). The hikes range from five short trails (ranging from 2-5 nights) to the Cederberg 100 Trail, an eight-night, seven-day trial, covering 100 km in the mountains.

Constitutionalised in 2007 as a non-profit voluntary association, the Cederberg Heritage Route was founded by and still governed collaboratively by the Moravian Church at Wupperthal, the Clanwilliam Tourism Information, Cederberg African Travel, CapeNature and Clanwilliam Living Landscape Projects (Potgieter, 2019; Cederberg Heritage Route (CHR), 2019). The organisation welcomes additional stakeholder and individuals to subscribe to their organisational objectives and to add value to the community at large. Their objectives are:

- to promote ecotourism in the Cederberg by conserving and honouring its ecological, geological, cultural and historical value;
- to promote multi-day hiking trails, complete with relevant accommodation services;
- to facilitate the training and leadership of hiking guides; and
- to stimulate local economic value (CHR, 2019).

The Cederberg Heritage Route's focus is therefore multipronged: to educate and empower local community members to become tour guides and facilitators, to service the visitors with a selection of hiking packages complete with accommodation and presenting the diverse ecological, historical and archaeological wonders of the Cederberg, and to stimulate local economic income. Consequently, the Cederberg Heritage Route's approach is in agreement with the researcher's definition of ecotourism, (as explored on page 44) as the activities have limited impact on the environment, the experience promotes cultural awareness and environmental education, and are predominantly locally beneficial by adding value to lives of the local community members (Researcher Synthesis).

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Implementation Challenges:

Although the Cederberg Heritage Route is well executed and stimulates local economic development, it is challenged by a lack of healthy work ethic (Burger, 2019). Although the leaders are trained and informed about the Complex's ecological wonders, a few cases were identified where they struggle to manage and balance their socio-economic challenges and service delivery. One particular case referenced a group facilitator under the influence of alcohol while leading a tour. Although the tour leaders receive basic training and are expected to adhere to their set rules of engagement, Burger (2019) and Potgieter (2019) support the thought of a more holistic training approach. Accordingly, to combat these actions, the researcher recommends partnering tourism training with basic capacity-building on topics relating to basic personal finance management and service delivery.

These facilitated trails are beneficial to the ergology as they do not only allow for accountability and monitoring to take place throughout the tours, but also due to its nature of stimulating environmental consciousness by limiting baggage to a backpack. Although the facilitators are not policing their groups, they are a representative of not only the Cederberg Heritage Route but also the Cederberg Complex.

6.3 CONCLUSION

Both an empirical and non-empirical approach were utilised in conducting the research. The use of secondary data (non-empirical data, as explored in chapters 2, 3 and 4) ensures for a fundamental understanding of concepts crucial to this study. This chapter explored CapeNature's implementation of governance principles, as well as the value ecotourism, is adding to the Cederberg Complex. By engaging with CapeNature representatives, and a few private landowners living in the Cederberg Complex, a local municipal member as well as the chair of Clanwilliam Tourism, a holistic approach to the operations could be formed.

The concept of good environmental governance is well-integrated into various aspects of CapeNature’s functionality. As explored in chapter 2, good environmental governance refers to ethical judgement and effectivity of actions focussed on the protection of natural environments, the management of natural resources and the combat of (sometimes global) environmental issues (researcher synthesis; Lemos & Agrawal, 2006). The principles of transparency, accountability, strategic direction, performance and agreement to the rule of law is present in both the METT and the staff members’ performance agreements and APOs. Both processes were reviewed and allow full

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transparency to monitor the achievement of targets in a collaborative and participatory manner, be it the appropriate CapeNature line manager or the METT's Performance Management System.

According to the literature explored in chapter 3, ecotourism consists of five building blocks: (1) nature-based activities; (2) ecological sustainability; (3) environmental education and awareness; (4) local beneficiation; and (5) tourism satisfaction (Newsome et al., 2013:19-23). Agreeably, CapeNature views ecotourism, first and foremost, as a conservation action – a vehicle to drive conservation and stimulate income mostly referred to as the operational budget. Accordingly, CapeNature's approach is in agreement with the first, second and fourth ecotourism building blocks. Although the tourism revenue generated over the documented 10 years has grown quite significantly, it continues to be only a fraction of the government funding allocated each year.

The findings featured four challenges preventing the successful implementation of ecotourism in the Cederberg Complex: (1) illegal access, (2) human resources constraints, (3) lack of environmental awareness, and (4) lack of collaboration. Although these challenges might seem to exist in isolation, they are mutually reinforcing and interdependent, with the all-encompassing challenge signifying the lack of collaboration.

As explored in chapter 2, collaboration is key to unlock good governance and ensuring ecotourism is implemented successfully. Overcoming these challenges will require a robust action plan focussed on addressing the lack of environmental awareness and collaboration within the Cederberg Complex. The next chapter will identify key recommendations and next steps to improve the implementation of collaboratively governed ecotourism activities within a multi-stakeholder setting such as the Cederberg Complex.

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CHAPTER 7: RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

7.1. INTRODUCTION

Based on the theoretical exploration conducted in chapter two and three, and guided by the legal frameworks and strategies, the researcher investigated the role of ecotourism and how it is governed in the Cederberg Complex. Through empirical and non-empirical investigation the researcher identified key challenges hindering ecotourism development in the Cederberg Complex, namely: (1) illegal access, (2) human resource constraints, (3) lack of environmental awareness, and (4) lack of collaboration.

This chapter will provide a high-level summary of the study followed by recommendations and next steps to address some of the identified challenges. Conclusively this chapter will speak to the seventh research objective.

7.2. SUMMARY OF MAIN FINDINGS

Protected areas are designed to safeguard natural environments and promote conservation disconnected from human impacts. If governed well, these protected areas could play a valuable role to unlock value for local communities culturally, socially, ecologically and economically. However, many protected areas are struggling to live up to their mandate due to mismanagement. Although tourism activities are commonly used as tools to stimulate additional income for natural areas, if not governed well, and with the correct tools (transparency, strategic vision, and partnerships), it will not be successful. The study explored the value of ecotourism and good environmental governance as tools to serve and unlock value for the Cederberg Complex. This was achieved through seven research objectives.

The study explored the theoretical understanding of good environmental governance and collaborative governance in chapter two and thereby addressed the first research objective. The concept of *governance* is not to be confused with *the government.* Traditionally, *government* is associated with a vertical or top-down management approach as appose to *governance* looking beyond resilience towards a more inclusive and collaborative way to effect change. It welcomes the various interested stakeholders from across industries and sectors to share knowledge and insights, participate in decision-making and ultimately apply horizontal implementation toward change. To

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govern well, therefore, requires trust, transparency, accountability, public participation, strategic thinking and direction, and alignment with ruling frameworks.

The study explored the theoretical understanding of *ecotourism* in the third research chapter as set out by the second research objective. Ecotourism could be utilised as a tool to stimulate economic income for protected areas; however, successful implementation requires an in-depth understanding of the concept. Ecotourism falls under the umbrella term of nature-based tourism (alternative to conventional mass tourism). Accordingly, it is associated and in alignment with sustainability principles, yet it operates beyond the traditional triangular relationship as described in the Brundtland Report in 1987. Rather, it includes more human-centred and educative factors. Ecotourism is, therefore, referred to as tourism activities that are inherently nature-based, ecologically sustainable executed, environmentally educative, locally beneficial, and sparking tourism satisfaction.

The area of focus for this study is the Cederberg Complex located 250 km North of Cape Town in the Western Cape. The fourth chapter addressed the third research objective by investigating the regulating frameworks, laws, policies and plans governing ecotourism development in Protected Areas and more specifically the Cederberg Complex. Respectively, the researcher explored the application of the South African Constitution (RSA, 1996), the National Environmental Management Act (NEMA) (107 of 1998) (RSA, 1998a), the National Tourism Act (3 of 2014) (RSA, 2014), the National Protected Areas Act (NEM:PAA) (57 0f 2003) (RSA, 2003a), the Intergovernmental Relations Act (13 of 2005) (RSA, 2005), as well the Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act (13 of 2005) (RSA, 2005).

The Cederberg Complex is governed by CapeNature and falls under the municipal jurisdiction the Cederberg Local Municipality and West Coast District Municipality. Accordingly, the mutually reinforcing strategic goals and objectives of both the Municipality's IDPs were reviewed along with CapeNature's strategic objectives for the Cederberg Complex, as captured by the Management Plan. CapeNature, a Schedule 3 public entity, is mandated by the Western Cape Nature Conservation Board to conserve the natural environment of the province. Consequently, it is the governing authority of the Cederberg Complex, and ultimately accountable to the Western Cape Province's Department of Environmental Affairs and Development Planning (DEA&DP).

The key findings of the study are captured in chapter six. The researcher addressed the final three research objectives through extensive empirical and non-empirical research. By conducting semi-structured interviews with CapeNature representatives and the Western Cape Province's Department

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of Environmental Affairs and Development Planning, the researcher investigated how CapeNature adhere to good environmental governance principles, especially in the Cederberg Complex (research objective four). Accordingly, DEA&DP is responsible to ensure CapeNature's activities are aligned with the overarching policies and legal frameworks.

Furthermore, in the Complex, CapeNature implements good governance through the Strategic Adaptive Management (SAM) approach planning, the Management Effectiveness Tracking Tool (METT), as well as personal performance agreements. These three tools do not function in isolation. Rather, they require cooperation with other parties, be it the appropriate line manager, a team monitoring and evaluating progress, or knowledgeable field experts sharing insights on a particular phenomenon. Although good governance (consisting of accountability, transparency, efficiency, strategic vision, the rule of law, and other characteristics as discussed in section 2.3) is essential to ensure processes and services are executed robustly, a key ingredient in addressing complex issues in multi-stakeholder settings (such as the Cederberg Complex) is collaboration. There is consensus that collaborative governance is the way forward by looking beyond resilience towards multi-disciplinary participation and action.

The fifth research objective was achieved by investigating how ecotourism is governed and implemented in the study area. As explored in the fourth chapter, the area is governed by the Cederberg Local Municipality, West Coast District Municipality, and CapeNature. To achieve the research goal, the researcher conducted semi-structured interviews with a representative of each institution. This was supported by consulting annual reports and examining how the strategic goals are met to address ecotourism and economic development in the Complex.

The sixth research objective aims to identify success stories of good governed ecotourism activities in the Cederberg Complex and consequently implemented in alignment with the good governance theory defined in chapter 2. This objective was achieved in chapter six by conducting semi-structured interviews with Cederberg Local Municipality, West Coast District Municipality, Clanwilliam Tourism Office and chair of the Cederberg Heritage Route, as well as a member of the Cederberg Conservancy, and other private landowners.

The Rocklands Partnership and Cederberg Heritage Route are two stories praised for their successful implementation of good governance, as explored in chapter 2. Although the two success stories may be challenged in other aspects, they famously embody the five building blocks of ecotourism (as

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explored in chapter 3), while adding value to the Cederberg Complex. Accordingly, both the Cederberg Heritage Route and the Rocklands Partnership are prime examples of collaborative governance. Although they are managed by a structured approach, they are built on trust, accountability, the sharing of knowledge, participation and set on a common goal – to service the Cederberg Complex with good governed ecotourism activities

7.3. RECOMMENDATIONS AND NEXT STEPS

As explored in the case study, the Cederberg Complex is filled with complexity. It falls within the municipal boundaries of both the Cederberg Local Municipality and the West Coast District Municipality and is home to more than 79 000 ha of diverse fauna and flora, avifauna, mammals, and cradles archaeological treasures dating back to the Stone Age (CapeNature, 2019b). The Complex is home to various private landowners and farmers, local *bosdorp* communities and public land (governed and conserved by CapeNature). Managing an area such as the Cederberg Complex with such divers and multi-stakeholder setting, therefore, requires collaborative with the public sector, private sector, governmental sphere (both local and provincial), as well as other interested parties such as voluntary and charitable organisations, academic institutions and international stakeholders.

Based on the findings discussed in chapter 6, the researcher proposes the following recommendations and actions to improve the implementation of ecotourism and good governance in the study area:

- Lack of public environmental awareness
- Human resource constraints
- Lack of collaboration
- Bouldering as ecotourism – next steps
- Cederberg Heritage Routes – next steps

7.3.1. The Community of Practice (CoP)

The challenges hindering the successful implementation of ecotourism in the Cederberg Complex are mutually reinforcing with the lack of collaboration as an overarching and all-encompassing challenge. Inspired by WCDM's Responsible Tourism Initiative as well as the structured approach National Tourism aims to address tourism development at grassroots (see addendum F), the researcher proposes the development of a collaborative platform such as a Community of Practice (CoP) designed to address all three challenges. The CoP will not only facilitate the development of environmental

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awareness and capacity building in the Cederberg Complex but also stimulate public participation across all spheres to address the needs of the Cederberg Complex.

The CoP will be managed by a core team consisting of the governing authorities in the Cederberg Complex, namely CapeNature (CN) and therefore also representing DEA&DP, Cederberg Local Municipality (CM), and the West Coast District Municipality (WCDM). Accordingly, the CoP will also consist of voluntary private stakeholders which can include but not be limited to the private landowners, the Cederberg Conservancy or other relevant non-governmental stakeholders and potential private funders. To ensure the dissemination of knowledge and empowerment at grassroots, capacity building (CB) organisations will also form part of the CoP's core. This will include academic institutions such as tertiary education institutions or schools, as well as capacity building organisations such as the South African Business Resources Institute (SABRI). The sixth position forming the core of the CoP is represented by additional context-specific governmental departments or affiliations such as WESGRO or GreenCape.

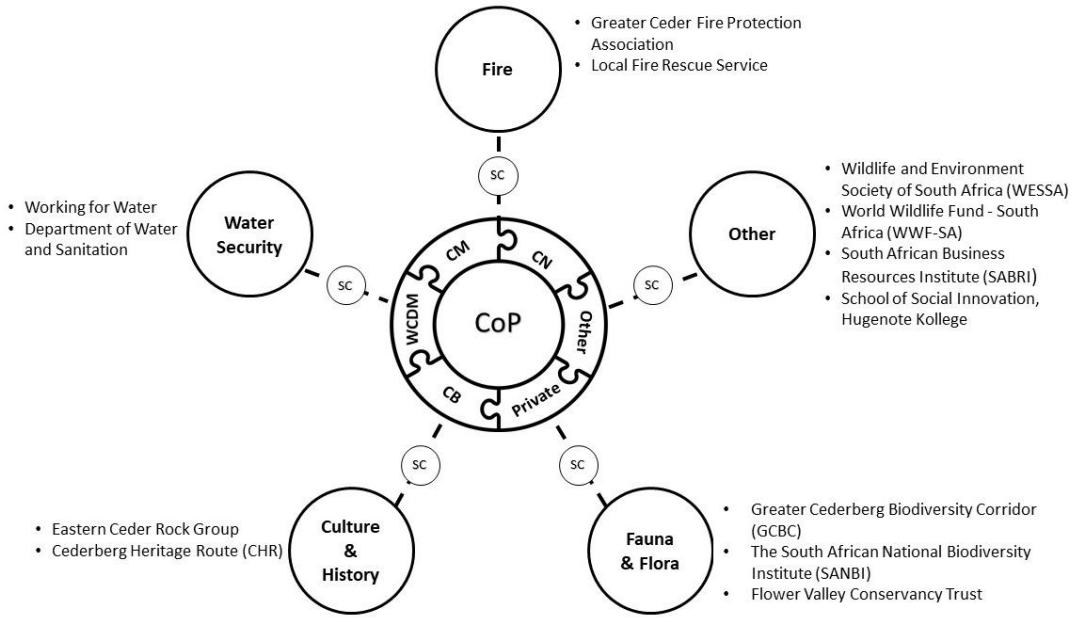

Figure 7. 1: Community of Practice

The CoP will serve as a collaborative platform to address identified topics by engaging with context-specific stakeholders and knowledge experts and so form a topic-specific team. For example, to simulate environmental awareness and to educate citizens on the rich fauna and flora in the Cederberg Complex, the CoP might extend their action group to key stakeholders such as the Greater Cederberg Biodiversity Corridor (GCBC); South African National Biodiversity Institute (SANBI); or the

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Working for Water Programme, as suggested by figure 7.1 and addendum G. To further ensure sufficient collaboration of all interested parties, a subcommittee (SC) for each project will be appointed. Accordingly, the subcommittee will also ensure actions are executed in the alignment with the good governance principles as explore in chapter 2.

As expressed throughout the thesis, there is a need for more aligned and collaboratively governed actions within a multi-stakeholder setting such as the Cederberg Complex. Accordingly, the CoP will become a vehicle to drive environmental change in the Cederberg Complex in a collaboratively governed way.

7.3.1.1 Bridging the environmental awareness gap with the CoP:

CapeNature's mandate is first and foremost to conserve the Western Cape's biodiversity. As supported by Mathews, the implementation of ecotourism activities in protected areas are utilised as a tool to attract more visitors, share knowledge and ultimately generate more income (Mathews, 2019). However, due to the nature of the trade, the implementation of ecotourism activities are greatly dependent on the area's sensitivity and impact assessments. Consequently, the environmental conditions may influence the visitor's experience. It is, therefore, essential to address the environmental awareness gap and to view the ecological systems holistically and approach protected areas as a cultivator of valuable resources

Although the Cederberg Complex is committed to the development of environmental education and awareness (in support of strategic objective 15, see addendum B (new), currently CapeNature is not achieving the desired outcomes. The researcher recommends a more collaborative approach to unlock environmental awareness and education. Inspired by the WCDM's Responsible Tourism Initiative as well as the national Department of Tourism's structured approach to address tourism development at grassroots (by connecting to context-specific agents - LTO, RTO, RTA), the Community of Practice (CoP) could be utilised as a tool to facilitate the implementation of environmental education and awareness in communities at grassroots.

Topics of education should include, but not be limited to, fire awareness, understanding water and water sensitivity, waste management, as well as more ecological-specific agendas that are unique to the Cederberg Complex such cultural history, and fauna and flora. Accordingly, the CoP will be managed by the multi-disciplinary core team and address the lack of environmental awareness by engaging with context-specific stakeholders to address the education gap at grassroots.

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The CoP core will, therefore, engage with education stakeholders such as local schools, academic institutions, or the Department of Education, as well as implementers and capacity building institutions such as the South African Business Resources Institute (SABRI). This could provide easier access to secure educational talks and implement environmental programmes at grassroots. Likewise, by engaging with tertiary academic scholars could unlock more research projects and facilitators to pursue the environmental awareness journey with the Cederberg Complex.

7.3.1.2. Addressing the human resource constraints and collaboration with the CoP:

During engagements with private landowners and tourism official it was found that CapeNature, Cederberg Local Municipality and the West Coast District Municipality are faced with human resource capacity constraints to implement tourism activities and unlock socio-economic benefits for the Cederberg Complex. This is partly due to the demanding task the governing authorities have to fulfil in the area (Potgieter, 2019; Fortuin, 2019; Burger, 2019; Nieuwoudt, 2019). It is recommended to expand the supporting team in the Cederberg Complex.

However, as explored in chapter 2, good governance is ultimately represented in relationships and trust amongst the participants as well as the public they serve (UNEP, 2011:8). Therefore, by simply contracting and appointing a new official to serve the Cederberg Complex might seem unpractical. Building trust and understanding the socio-economic dynamics in the smaller Cederberg communities are key to ensure collaboration and successful implementation of activities (Burger, 2019; Potgieter, 2019).

Likewise, throughout the thesis, the researcher highlighted the need for collaboration, as supported by Burger (2019), Nieuwoudt (2019) and Abrahams (2020a). Although the CoP will greatly contribute towards the development of environmental education and awareness, there is room for even more inclusivity by supporting the CoP centre with a supporting committee to address specific tasks and so bridging the human resource and collaboration gap.

Inspired by the Cederberg Conservancy, and the value it adds to the involved members in the Complex, the researcher recommends a more public participatory approach to support the CoP - the subcommittee (SC). The CoP will function as a tool to foster collaboration in the Cederberg Complex in a structured manner, while the subcommittee is a voluntary group to support the themed activities of the CoP. This would provide local community members with the opportunity to play a more active role in the Cederberg Complex by representing the smaller, and more rural, towns such as

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Wupperthal, Heuningvlei, and Eselbank. The subcommittee will also act as a direct channel to the CoP to address public needs (researcher synthesis; Burger, 2019).

In conclusion, although the specifics of the CoP should still be workshopped, if executed correctly, this approach will not only add value to the implementation and understanding of ecotourism in the Cederberg Complex but also address the lack of needed collaborative governance and human resource constraints

7.3.2. Bouldering as ecotourism – next steps

As explored in chapter 3 and again echoed in chapter 6, adventure tourism activities such as bouldering, is recognised as nature-based tourism and characterised by its deep appreciation and admiration for nature while perusing risk and physical exaltation (Fennell, 2003:29; Weaver, 2001b:74). Due to its educative aspects, bouldering is also considered to be an ecotourism form. Consequently, bouldering falls in the overlap of adventure and ecotourism, as shown in figure 3.2. Moreover, it is also concerned with the ecological sustainably as the activity is dependent on sturdy boulders, participants are usually equally concerned about the area surrounding the boulders and conserving its pristine state of being. Tourism satisfaction is another common factor, although it might attract a different, and more risk-seeking, type of ecotourist.

Bouldering activities in the Cederberg Complex are still new to the academic research field. Although the activities are currently, to some extent, enjoyed without negatively impacting the ecological integrity of the area, the researcher recommends further research and investigation the longevity of the activities. Future research will assist in identifying the ecological trigger points, determine the area's carrying capacity and assess the long-term effects. This will require extensive involvement from academics and environmental consultants, the Department of Economic Development and Tourism (DEDAT), DEA&DP, CapeNature, the private landowners, and local community members.

These activities should be documented and monitored to successfully manage its growth. Once a baseline study had been completed, the researcher recommends the implementation of a monitoring process to track the growth of tourism activities, learn from previous mistakes, apply the best practices and facilitate knowledge dissemination.

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7.3.3. Cederberg Heritage Route – next steps

The Cederberg Heritage Route serves as a vehicle supporting and fostering local economic development for communities by sharing the ecological knowledge, stories, culture and heritage of the Cederberg Complex with visitors. It is, therefore, a prime example of ecotourism as it addresses all five principles and is in line with the definition discussed in chapter 3. The initiative is also well-governed as it is managed collaboratively and supported by various stakeholders in the Complex. According to the researcher, the next step is to ensure its robustness and longevity as a tool to stimulate local economic development.

Accordingly, the researcher suggests a series of bespoke capacity building sessions curated to empower the CHR tour managers, hosts and guides with essential financial and business knowledge, as well as basic life skills. As the educational background of the volunteers differs quite dramatically, comprehensive seminar-style courses are not recommended. Preferably, the course should follow a less academic style and rather focus on stimulating a participatory and empowering learning environment by introducing the participants to specific concepts with regards to the conservation, business and tourism industry. Accordingly, as suggested section 7.3.1, this capacity-building could be executed by the CoP and subcommittee by connecting to capable facilitators.

Basic life skills: These skills are considered tools and "abilities for adaptive and positive behaviour" (Imsimbi Training, 2019). Upon completion of the course participants should be able to do the following:

- Demonstrate understanding and knowledge of emotional intelligence concepts and be able to identify and apply it in their life and work relations.
- Building self-confidence (self-worth and pride).
- Professional and responsible behaviour (including assertiveness).
- Communication skills (social styles and flexing).
- Listening skills (different types and utility).
- Master self-management and setting of short-, medium- and long-term goals.

Basic financial management: The researcher also recommends capacity building in basic financial management. This crash course will equip participants with a foundation for basic financial management tools. Upon completion, participants would be able to do the following:

- Describe financial terminology and concepts.
- Apply basic financial planning tools: budgeting, cash-flow projections, cost-benefit analysis.

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- Read, interpret and understand basic financial statements: budgets, expenditure statements, balance statements.
- Understand financial management success and failure factors.

To ensure the sustainable application of these newly acquired skills, the researcher suggests a follow up one-day “booster-class” to ensure the information turns to knowledge. Alternatively, a mentoring programme would be implemented (and supported by the CoP and subcommittee) where volunteers are partnered with mentors (entrepreneurs or more experienced industry players) to support the mentees on their capacity-building journey.

7.4. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the study conducted a critical analysis of the role of ecotourism and good environmental governance in the Cederberg Complex. Although there were limitations to the study, the researcher addressed all the research objectives through semi-structured interviews, analysing primary data, as well as the extensive literature review.

In summary, the researcher investigated the meaning of good environmental governance and the key principles to govern well. Accordingly, the study showcased a few practical examples of the governance theories explored in chapter 2, such as the Strategic Adaptive Management (SAM - adaptive governance), the Cederberg Conservancy and Rockland Partnership (collaborative governance).

The study explored the meaning of ecotourism and identified five building blocks for successful implementation, namely: (1) nature-based activities, (2) ecologically sustainable, (3) environmentally educative, (4) local beneficial, and (5) tourism satisfaction. Accordingly, these principles were examined with practical examples such as the bouldering activities in the northern part of the Complex and the Cederberg Heritage Route's hiking adventures. The researcher also explored how both these examples could potentially be improved.

Above all, the study, highlighted the need for collaborative governance as a way forward to facilitate the complex issues facing the multi-stakeholder setting. Accordingly, these partnerships should extend beyond the governing authorities (CapeNature, Cederberg Local Municipality, and West Coast District Municipality) and include, private sector and private landowners, local tourism operators and

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implementors, and other interested parties. The researcher proposed the implementation of a Community of Practice (CoP) to address the lack of environmental awareness and human resource constraints in a collaborative approach.

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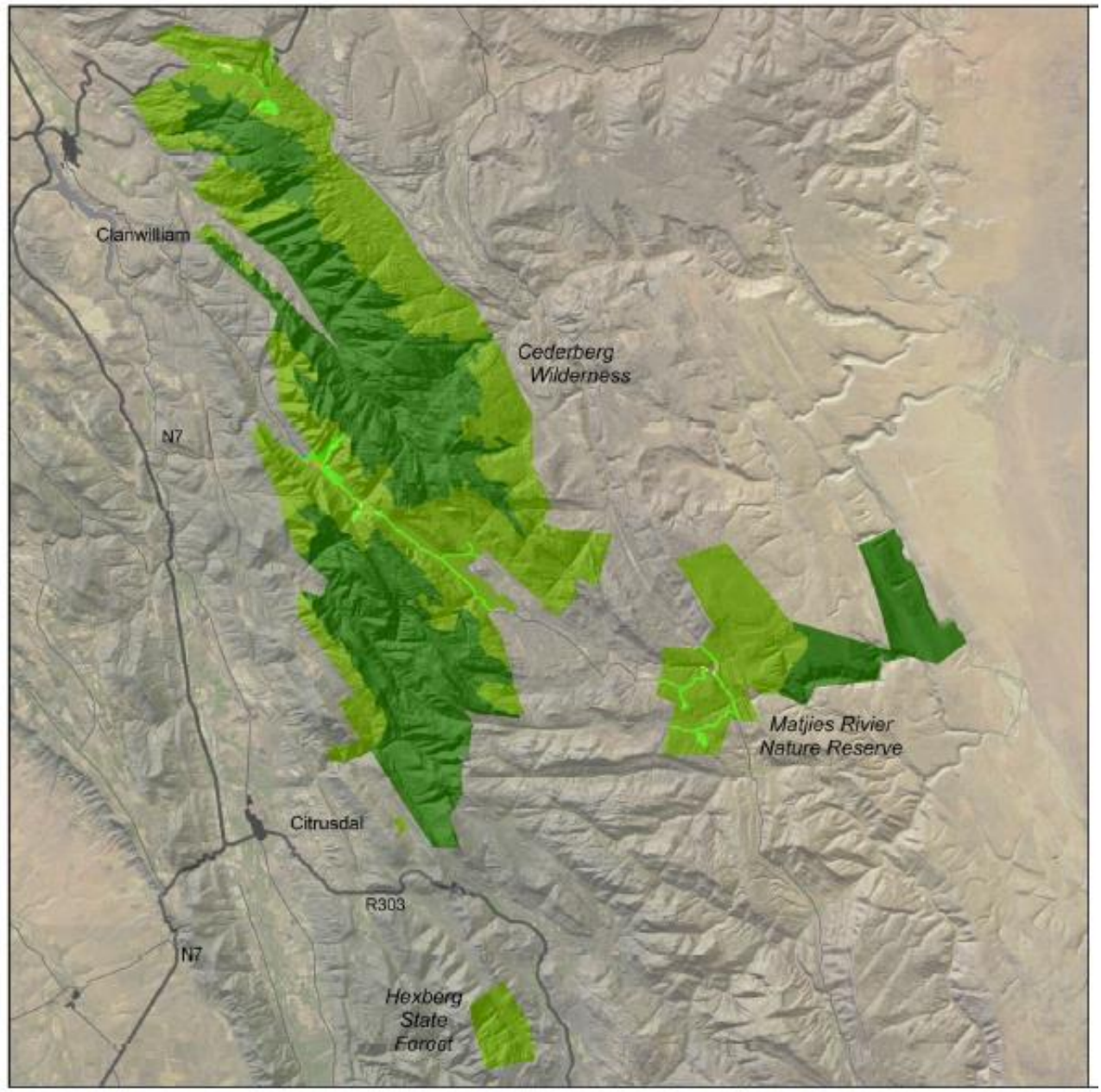
ADDENDUM A: MAP OF THE CEDERBERG COMPLEX



(CapeNature, 2012:87)

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ADDENDUM B: THE LISTED GOVERNING STRATEGIES IDENTIFIED BY CAPENATURE, CEDERBERG LOCALMUNICIPALITY AND WEST COAST DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY.

Nr.	**Cederberg Complex conservation strategies (Cederberg Complex Management Plan)**	**Cederberg Local Municipality's Strategic Objectives (IDP)**	**Cederberg Local Municipality's Spatial Objectives (SDF)**	**West Coast District Municipality's Strategic Goals (IDP)**	**West Coast District Municipality's general objectives (SDF)**
1	Address Invasive Alien Fish control on priority rivers within the Cederberg Complex and its Zone of Influence.	Improve and sustain basic service delivery and infrastructure development.	Grow and unlock economic prosperity.	To create the environmental integrity of the West Coast.	Create opportunities for growth and jobs.
2	Address Invasive Alien Species control through the development of an Invasive Alien Species control plan for the Cederberg Complex.	Implement strategies to ensure financial viability and economical sustainability.	Proximate convenient and equal access.	To purpose economic growth and the facilitation of job opportunities.	Increase access to safe and efficient transport and improve public transport systems.
3	Through partnership, enhance the management and protection of the fynbos, Clanwilliam cedar tree and heritage values of the Cederberg Complex.	Good governance, community development and public participation.	Sustain material, physical and social well-being.	To promote the social well-being of residents, communities and targeted social groups in the district.	Increase wellness and safety – reduce poverty.
4	Through partnership, share, evaluate and enhance the management and protection of the Cederberg Complex heritage values both internally and externally.	Aggregate facilitate, expand and nature sustainable economic growth and eradicate poverty.	Protect and grow place identity (sense of place) and cultural integrity.	Promoting bulk infrastructure development services.	Focus on spatial transformation by promoting integrated and sustainable human settlements.

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5	The CapeNature Natural Resource Utilisation policy and Permit System must provide usage categories and guidelines for Cultural, Medicinal and Spiritual use.	Enable a resilient, sustainable, quality and inclusive living environment and human settlement, i.e. Housing development and informal settlement upgrade.	Protect ecological and agricultural integrity.	To ensure good governance and financial viability.	Promote and enhance resource-use efficiency.
6	Incorporate protected area priorities and Zone of Influence outputs into municipal Integrated Development Plans and Spatial Development Frameworks.	To facilitate social cohesion, safe and healthy communities.			Invest in renewable 'green' energy projects.
7	Promote the Cederberg Complex as a World Heritage Site and unique Wilderness destination for Spiritual Health.				Increase spatial integration and social cohesion.
8	Inspire all stakeholders about the significance of indigenous fish species within the Cederberg Complex and its Zone of Influence.				Provide basic services to all.
9	Through partnership, address Invasive Alien Plant clearing and compliance within the Zone of Influence of the Cederberg Complex.				Improve and expand infrastructure – Saldanha IDZ and iron ore railway line.
10	Enhance the management and restoration of the Clanwilliam cedar tree within the Cederberg Complex.				Create opportunities for growth and development in rural areas.
11	Inspire all stakeholders about the significance of all heritage values within the Cederberg Complex.				
12	Through partnership, address illegal and un-sustainable resource utilisation practices				

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	which includes domestic animals, extra-limital game, poaching, overgrazing and land degradation within the Cederberg Complex and its Zone of Influence.				
13	Through partnership, address agricultural water use best practice and compliance with landowners within the Krom / Matjies / Driehoeks River systems.				
14	Enhance the protection and ecological functioning of the Cederberg core corridor through protected area consolidation and stewardship.				
15	Enhance and raise awareness of all ecological values within the Cederberg Complex and where appropriate its Zone of Influence.				
16	Through partnership, address socio-economic challenges of surrounding communities within the Zone of Influence of the Cederberg Complex.				
17	Support economic development through skills & capacity building and identifying sustainable work opportunities for surrounding communities within the Cederberg Complex and its Zone of Influence.				

(CapeNature, 2019b:x-xi; Cederberg Local Municipality, 2017a:39-40; Cederberg Local Municipality, 2017b:ii-iii; WCDM, 2019:68)

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ADDENDUM C: LIST OF ENGAGED INTERVIEW PARTICIPANTS

Organisation and Department	Interview Location	Representative
CapeNature: Conservation Manager as the Cederberg Complex	Telephonic	Ms R. Du Plessis
CapeNature: Tourism Development Department	CapeNature Head Quarters	Mr R. Mathews
Cederberg Conservancy Representative: Member	Driehoek Wine Farm	Mr D. Burger
Cederberg Heritage Route: Chair	Clanwiliam Tourism Offices	Ms R. Potgieter
Cederberg Local Municipality: Strategic Services Manager	Cederberg Local Municipality, Clanwiliam Offices	Mr N. Mercuur
Clanwilliam Tourism: Chair	Clanwiliam Tourism Offices	Ms R. Potgieter
Department of Agriculture	Unavailable	
Department of Economic Development and Tourism	Unavailable	
Department of Environmental Affairs and Development Planning (DEA&DP): Biodiversity Unit	Telephonic	Mr A. Ackhurst
Driehoek Wine Farm: Landowner	Driehoek Wine Farm	Mr D. Burger
Gecko Creek Wilderness Lodge	Unavailable	
Jamaka Organic Farm: Private Landowner	Jamaka Oragic Farm	Mr J. Nieuwoudt
Pakhuis Farm: Private Landowner	Telephonic	Mr T. Kruger
Rocklands Partnership: Chair	Telephonic	Mr T. Kruger
Sanddrif Holiday Resort / Cederberg Wines: Tourism Management	Cederberg Cellars	Ms C. Fortuin
WESGRO	Unavailable	
West Coast District Municipality: Tourism Manager	Telephonic	Mr G. Abrahams

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ADDENDUM D: SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDELINE

- Please describe your relationship with Governing authorities in the Cederberg Complex – CapeNature, Cederberg Local Municipality and West Coast District Municipality?
- How regularly do you engage with Governing authorities in the Cederberg Complex – CapeNature, Cederberg Local Municipality and West Coast District Municipality?
- How do these authorities support the tourism development?
- How do you measure good environmental governance?
- How does CapeNature measure and monitor tourism implementation in the Cederberg Complex?
- What governance challenges are tourism activities faced with in the Cederberg Complex?
- What challenges are ecotourism development and implementation confronted with in the Cederberg Complex?
- How are your ecotourism activities in the Cederberg Complex monitored?
- How does governing authorities support the development and implementation of (eco)tourism development in the Cederberg Complex?
- How does governing authorities support the development and implementation of good and collaborative governance ain the Cederberg Complex?
- How does governing authority stimulate environmental integrity in the Cederberg Complex?
- How does governing authority stimulate local economic development?
- In what way does the governing authority stimulate partnerships and collaboration in the Cederberg Complex?

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ADDENDUM E: ETHICAL APPROVAL LETTER

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UNIVERSITY

NOTICE OF APPROVAL

REC: Social, Behavioural and Education Research (SBER) - Initial Application Form

26 September 2019

Project number: 7824

Project Title: A critical analysis of ecotourism within the Cederberg Nature Reserve Complex from a good environmental governance perspective

Dear Miss Martine Faurie

Your REC: Social, Behavioural and Education Research (SBER) - Initial Application Form submitted on 17 September 2019 was reviewed and approved by the REC: Humanities.

Please note the following for your approved submission:

Ethics approval period:

Protocol approval date (Humanities)	Protocol expiration date (Humanities)
26 September 2019	25 September 2022

GENERAL COMMENTS:

1) The researcher is reminded to supply the REC with proof of permission from CapeNature as soon as their written permission is obtained. [ACTION REQUIRED]

Please take note of the General Investigator Responsibilities attached to this letter. You may commence with your research after complying fully with these guidelines.

If the researcher deviates in any way from the proposal approved by the REC: Humanities, the researcher must notify the REC of these changes.

Please use your SU project number (7824) on any documents or correspondence with the REC concerning your project.

Please note that the REC has the prerogative and authority to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modifications, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.

FOR CONTINUATION OF PROJECTS AFTER REC APPROVAL PERIOD

Please note that a progress report should be submitted to the Research Ethics Committee: Humanities before the approval period has expired if a continuation of ethics approval is required. The Committee will then consider the continuation of the project for a further year (if necessary)

Included Documents:

Document Type	File Name	Date	Version
Research Protocol/Proposal	M Faurie _ MPhil Proposal 20190408	08/04/2019	
Data collection tool	Community Questionnaire 20190430	30/04/2019	1
Data collection tool	Semi-structured interview guide 20190430	30/04/2019	1
Recruitment material	Dear CapeNature 20190522	22/05/2019	2
Request for permission	Dear CapeNature Gatekeeper 20190527	27/05/2019	1
Data collection tool	Multimedia description 20190530	30/05/2019	1
Informed Consent Form	Interview Concent form 20190529	10/09/2019	3
Informed Consent Form	Questionnair Concent Form 20190912	12/09/2019	2

If you have any questions or need further help, please contact the REC office at cgraham@sun.ac.za.

Sincerely,

Clarissa Graham

REC Coordinator: Research Ethics Committee: Human Research (Humanities)

National Health Research Ethics Committee (NHREC) registration number: REC-050411-032.
The Research Ethics Committee: Humanities complies with the SA National Health Act No.61 2003 as it pertains to health research. In addition, this committee abides by the ethical norms and principles for research established by the Declaration of Helsinki (2013) and the Department of Health Guidelines for Ethical Research: Principles Structures and Processes (2nd Ed.) 2015. Annually a number of projects may be selected randomly for an external audit.

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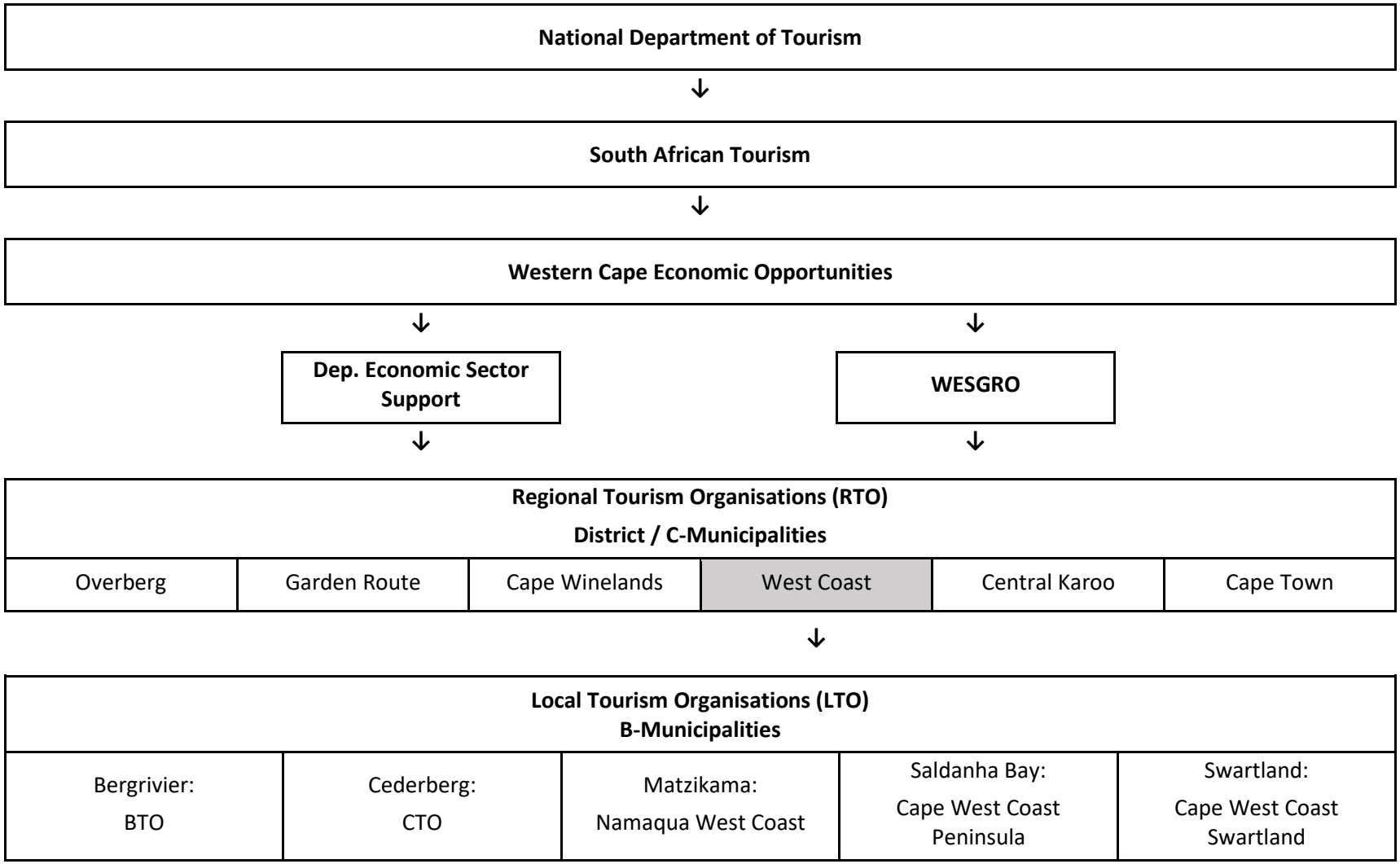
ADDENDUM F: REGIONAL TOURISM ORGANISATIONS FOR THE WEST COAST DISTRIC MUNICIPALITY



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↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
Local Tourism Association (LTA): Towns and Information Offices				
• Velddrif, Aurora • Piketberg, Wittewater, Redelinghuis • Goeverwacht • Porterville	• Clanwilliam • Citrusdal • Lamberts Bay • Elands Bay • Wupperthal	• Vredendal, Lutzville Koekenaap, Standfontein, Doring Bay, Papendrop, Ebenheazer, • Klawer, Trawal, • Vanrhynsdorp • Bitterfontein, Kliprand, Molsvlei, Nuwerus, Putsekloof, Riepoort, Stofkraal Wine Route	• Saldanha, Jacobs Bay, Vredenburg • Langebaan, Hopefield • Paternoster, St Helena Bay	• Malmesbury Tourism • Moorreesburg, Koringberg • Darling • Riebeek Valley • Yzerfontein • R27 Hub

(RTO Tourism Structures, cited in Abrahams, 2020b)

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ADDENDUM G: COMMUNITY OF PRACTICE (COP)